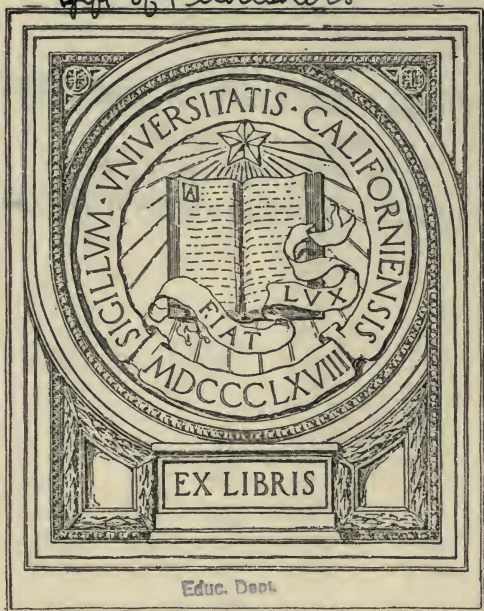


GRAMMAR TO USE

LEWIS AND LYNCH

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GRAMMAR TO USE

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PREFACE

This book, as its title suggests, is designed to teach grammar for use in expression rather than for mere knowledge of grammatical theory. An effort has been made to present fundamental grammatical principles with such simplicity and detail that pupils of average ability in grades seven to nine inclusive can understand them with little help. In this connection particular attention has been paid to the grading. In presenting each subject, the approach has been made as simple and obvious as possible, and each successive step has been developed and illustrated clearly. In short, the aim of the book is not merely to state and illustrate the principles of grammar, but also to teach and apply them. An unusually large quantity of material for drill in connection with each important topic has been supplied. This drill should establish the essential habit of using the principles learned.

The manuscript of *GRAMMAR TO USE* was practically complete before the publication of the joint report on the study of English by the commission of the National Education Association and the National Council of Teachers of English. The following quotation from the report, however, summarizes accurately the fundamental principles underlying the preparation of the book.

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"The reaction against English grammar arose from the knowledge that the formal work in the subject that was being done was of small practical value. A further influence resulted from investigations tending to show that grammar provides little mental discipline of a general character. The movement in favor of simplifying the school course and concentrating on essentials did the rest. There is need at the present time of careful discrimination, lest the pendulum be allowed to swing too far.

"A sane attitude toward the teaching of grammar would seem to be to find out what parts and aspects of the subject have actual value to children in enabling them to improve their speaking, writing, and reading, to teach these parts according to modern scientific methods, and to ignore any and all portions of the conventional school grammar that fall outside these categories. In general, the grammar worth teaching is the grammar of use—function in the sentence—and the grammar to be passed over is the grammar of classification—pigeonholing by definition. Language, it is well known, is learned mainly by imitation, largely unconscious, and children constantly use in their speech hundreds of expressions, many of them highly idiomatic, which only the linguistic scholar, familiar with the history of the language, can explain. Children should be set to examining only those grammatical forms and constructions whose use they can plainly see, and they should pursue such examination with the conscious purpose of learning how to make better sentences. Any other aim is mere pedantry."

The sentences for drill, examples of typical errors, and the list of idioms are illustrative of the actual usage of pupils. Proverbs and literary quotations have been avoided. The authors believe that the drill most likely to be effective is that which is most nearly in the everyday language of the pupil.

Perhaps the distinctive characteristic of the book is the emphasis which it places upon function as the basis for determining the classification and use of grammatical elements. The word, phrase, or clause is what its function in the sentence makes it. If the child can be made to understand clearly the nature of a sentence and of the work each part of speech does in a sentence, his most serious grammatical troubles will disappear. For such a method of development, an understanding of the sentence is necessary, and for this reason the treatment of that subject has been placed first.

The authors desire to express their thanks to the English Department of the William Penn High School of Philadelphia for the use of illustrative and drill material, and to Miss Elizabeth Lodor, the head of this department, and to Mr. Bruce M. Watson, formerly Superintendent of Schools of Spokane, Washington, both of whom have given many invaluable suggestions.

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I. THE SENTENCE

1. What a sentence is.

Examine these groups of words.

- (a) If the train is late
- (b) Although John has not come
- (c) When dinner is finished

Why are you not satisfied with any of these groups of words? The reason is that not one of them gives you a complete thought. Your desire to complete the expression of a thought once started is natural. Therefore you will find no difficulty in finishing the thoughts written above. Finish (a) thus:

If the train is late, we shall not reach Oak Lane in time for the game.

This group of words expresses a thought completely. Complete (b) and (c) in a similar way.

Exercise

Do any of the following groups of words express a thought completely?

- 1. The whistle of the train
- 2. Eleanor, the girl with the dark hair
- 3. The goods may
- 4. Father sent from
- 5. The game with our nine

6. The lady from across the street
7. Every few minutes Harry
8. Because I went
9. When he came
10. Where he is

Make each of the word-groups given above into a group that expresses a thought completely. The following dialogue may help you:

Tom: "The birds singing in the trees."

James: "Well, what else have you to say about them?"

Tom: "The birds singing in the trees awoke me this morning."

James: "Why didn't you say so?"

If Tom had said at first, "The birds singing in the trees awoke me this morning," James would have been satisfied. Instead of this, Tom first used a group of words that did not say anything. His first group, in other words, did not express a thought completely.

A group of words that expresses a thought completely is a *sentence*.

Exercise

Select the sentences in the following exercise. Make a sentence out of each group of words that is not a sentence as it stands.

1. While I was standing by the gate waiting for my father
2. Just as the automobile reached the corner by the post-office
3. Will made a home run

4. John, hurrying home from the game, and riding as fast as he could

5. The frightened horse whirled suddenly and ran in the opposite direction

6. Although he was pleased with his new friend, and spent as much time as he could with him

Write ten sentences of your own, using as material what you can see from your seat in the class room.

2. Declarative and interrogative sentences.

(a) Mary burnt her finger.

(b) Did she burn her finger badly?

Both (a) and (b) above are sentences. Yet do they not differ? (a) tells you something. (b) asks something.

The sentence which merely tells or declares is a *declarative sentence*.

The sentence which asks a question is an *interrogative sentence*. *Interrogative* means asking.

The declarative sentence is followed by a period (.). The interrogative sentence is always followed by a question mark (?).

Some grammarians classify two other kinds of sentence. These classifications serve little purpose and are gradually coming to be disregarded. They are given under 3 and 4.

3. The imperative sentence.

(a) Please lend me your pencil.

(b) Strike, till the last armed foe expires.

These sentences express an entreaty or a com-

mand. Such a sentence, like the declarative sentence, is followed by a period.

4. The exclamatory sentence.

How blue the sky is today!

The essential quality of the exclamatory sentence is its expression of strong feeling. It may take the form of a statement, a command, or a question.

Statement: Oh, we were so tired!

Command: Oh, see that beautiful boat!

Question: Oh, John, why in the world did you do that!

The exclamatory sentence is always followed by the exclamation point (!).

5. Subject and predicate.

(a) Mary threw the ball over the fence.

You can divide this sentence into two parts:
(1) *Mary*, and (2) what is said about *Mary*.

(b) John was cheerful and gay.

The two parts here are (1) *John*, and (2) what is said about *John*.

(c) The wires were broken during the storm.

The two parts are (1) *the wires*, and (2) what is said about *the wires*.

(d) It was the best of all my books.

The two parts are (1) *It*, and (2) what is said about *It*.

Could you leave out either part 1 or 2 from any of these sentences and still retain a complete thought? You could not. In (a), for example, if you left out *Mary*, you would not know who did the throwing, and if you left out *threw the ball over the fence*, you would not know what *Mary* did. Every sentence must have these two parts. Part 1 always tells one of three facts: *who does* the action mentioned by part 2; or the *person of whom* part 2 says something; or the *thing of which* part 2 says something. Part 2 always tells what part 1 does, or says something about part 1.

The real name of part 1 is *subject*; the real name of part 2 is *predicate*.

The *subject* of a sentence is the part about which a statement is made.

The *predicate* of a sentence is the part that makes the statement.

Watch your own speech to see whether you are careful to speak in sentences.

Exercise

Select the subjects and predicates in the following sentences:

1. The messenger delivered the telegram.
2. The picnic tables were placed under the trees.
3. I spent my entire allowance on a book.
4. The boy jumped nimbly over the railing.
5. The traveler spent many lonesome weeks in the Alps.
6. The postman brings the letters at eight o'clock.

7. The girl lost her purse.
8. Marconi invented the wireless telegraph.
9. The letter was sent to me by mistake.
10. The entertainment was held at the town hall.
11. Parades block traffic in large cities.
12. It was my turn to get breakfast.
13. The package weighed eight pounds.
14. A special delivery stamp costs ten cents.
15. Reporters gather news for papers.

Exercise

Write the subjects of the following sentences in one column, and the predicates in another:

1. Juno scolded her favorite bird, the peacock.
2. Hans Andersen's statue stands in Lincoln Park in Chicago.
3. Maid Marian cooked delicious meals for Robin Hood's men.
4. I thank you.
5. His scarlet shoes were embroidered with gold.
6. I never saw a happier face.
7. The king always listened to the woes of his subjects.
8. This knight had many friends among the poor.
9. God bless you.
10. I must shake hands with the youngster.
11. He may win the game yet.
12. The Yale captain gasped.
13. Murray copied the lists.
14. A roar of cheering rose from a corner of the field.
15. The eleven ran out into the field like colts at pasture.
16. Ford recognized the writing of the managing editor.
17. His sleep was distressed by unhappy dreams.
18. King flushed and bit his lip.

19. We offered no explanations.

20. For a moment he forgot his crushing burden of debt.

21. Hans Andersen wrote fairy tales for children.

6. The simple sentence. Each of the sentences you have studied so far in this chapter expresses but one complete thought. A sentence containing but one subject and predicate can express only one thought completely.

A *simple* sentence contains only one subject and one predicate.

Exercise

Make up ten simple sentences, using as material experiences you have had in the last twenty-four hours.

7. Simple and compound subjects. The subjects in (a), (b), (c), and (d), page 4, are called simple subjects because they mention only one person or thing. Note the difference between those subjects and these:

(a) George and John went to school together.

(b) The telephone and the telegraph are recent inventions.

The only difference between these sentences and those given on page 4 is that in (a) two persons are mentioned instead of one; and in (b) two things are mentioned instead of one.

A *compound* subject is made up of two or more

connected subjects having the same predicate. *Compound* means made of two or more parts.

8. Compound predicates. Just as the subject may mention two or more persons or things, so may the predicate say two or more things about the subject. For instance:

(a) John knelt and said his prayers.

(b) Harry swung his arm and threw the ball.

A compound predicate is made up of two or more connected predicates having the same subject.

A compound subject is regarded as one subject, even though it is made up of two parts; so, also, a compound predicate is regarded as one predicate, although it is composed of two parts.

A sentence which expresses but one complete thought, with the aid of either a compound subject or a compound predicate, is still a simple sentence.

Exercise

Point out the compound subjects and predicates in the following simple sentences:

1. The steamer and the tug dropped slowly down the harbor.
2. The woman wrung her hands and cried out in fear.
3. The boys and girls had a merry party.
4. The children and their mother have gone to the seashore.
5. Harry and I will be there promptly.
6. They begged and implored us to forgive them.
7. He caught and held the falling child securely.

8. Chairs and tables were brought out on the porch.
9. Prosperity and happiness are flowing in upon him.
10. Aunt Mary arranged the whole plan and took the responsibility of carrying it out.

9. The compound sentence.

- (a) The two nurses carried bandages, and the doctors followed with the heavier things.
- (b) His timely hit won the game, and the game won the series.
- (c) Mary read many books, but she always forgot their names.

How many thoughts are expressed by each of the sentences given above? Notice that in (a) and (b) the connection between the two thoughts in each case is made by *and*, and that in (c) the connection is made by *but*. Observe, also, that in each of the three sentences the second thought expressed is just as important as the first one. If in any of the three cases you dropped the connecting word, and placed a period after the first thought, the first thought would make sense standing alone; so, also, would the second thought standing alone. Such a sentence, made up of two or more equally important parts, is called a compound sentence.

The *compound* sentence is one which is made up of two or more equally important parts.

Exercise

Select the equally important thoughts from the following compound sentences:

1. I shall pass by many attractive furnishings, but I cannot help mentioning a pair of antlers in the great hall.

2. She has been a pet with all the servants since childhood, and every one of them seems to lay some claim to her education.

3. Mr. Tibbetts was not at home, but we received a hearty welcome from his wife.

4. Fruit trees were trained up against the cottage, and pots of flowers stood in the windows.

5. The furniture was old-fashioned, strong, and highly polished, and the walls were hung with colored prints of the Prodigal Son and of other characters from the Bible.

You must make sure that you know the difference between a compound subject or a compound predicate, and a compound sentence. In the sentence,

The two nurses carried bandages, and the doctors followed with the heavier things,

nurses is the subject of *carried*, and *doctors* is the subject of *followed*.

In the sentence,

George and John went to school together,

the two words *George* and *John* are together the subject of *went*.

Exercise

Point out which of the following sentences contain compound subjects or predicates, and which are compound sentences:

1. Bertha and I made and distributed the gifts.

2. Jack measured the distance carefully with his eye, and kicked the ball directly between the posts.

3. Fred and I both ran at the call for help and bumped into each other at the door.

4. We saw **no** one, but we heard the sound of footsteps near us.

5. We followed the road for a mile and then turned into the field.

6. The door opened and she entered smiling,

7. I see again the expression of Lincoln's face, and I hear again the sound of his voice, and I recall even the details of his dress on that memorable evening.

8. The boy sprang from the old man's side and threaded his way down the dark stairs.

9. He raised himself on tiptoe and shouted the single word, "Ring!"

10. A young man picked up some of the hailstones and examined them.

11. The heavens declare the glory of God, and the firmament showeth his handiwork.

12. The book dealer and his customer walked down the street.

13. Mr. Tupman advanced a step or two and glared at Mr. Pickwick.

14. "The Assyrian came down like the wolf on the fold,
And his cohorts were gleaming in purple and gold;
And the sheen of their spears was like stars on the
sea."

15. The king pardoned them and invited them to live with him at his court.

16. Robin Hood and his band were a merry group of men.

10. The term *clause*. The two thoughts in the compound sentence have been referred to as the first thought and the second thought. The real name

for the first thought and the second thought is *clause*.

A simple sentence has only one subject and one predicate; so we need not think of the word *clause* in connection with the simple sentence. The compound sentence, on the contrary, is made up of two or more simple sentences so connected that either of the sentences could stand alone if the connecting word were removed. It is necessary, therefore, to have a name for the different divisions of the compound sentence so that you can refer to them clearly. The term *clause* is used for each of these parts.

A *clause* is a division of a sentence which contains a subject and predicate.

The first clause in (a), page 9, is, *The two nurses carried bandages*. The second clause is, *the doctors followed with the heavier things*.

Exercise

Name the clauses in the following compound sentences:

1. It was a sharp flash of lightning, but fortunately it did not strike.

2. She wrote and posted the invitation; but I never received it.

3. The detective told his story, and then I told mine.

4. The thunder rolled, and the winds howled.

5. She works hard, but she never accomplishes anything.

6. The accident had unnerved the man, but he kept control of himself.

7. The good squire's heart warmed toward his friend, and he at once cast about for means to help him.

11. Coördinating words. Note that *and* and *but* are the connecting words most frequently used between clauses of equal importance. Because it is the duty of *and* and *but* to connect equally important clauses, *and* and *but* are called coördinating connecting words. *Coördinating* means making to work together or making to have equal rank.

Or and *nor* are also coördinating connecting words, and are used in much the same way as *and* and *but*. Examples:

1. You may come at five, *or* you may come at six.
2. He came not, *nor* did he give a reason for his absence.
3. She does not like me, *nor* do I like her.

12. The complex sentence. Compare these sentences with those of the preceding exercises:

- (a) Towser always comes when he is called.
- (b) If you do not come early, you will miss all the fun.
- (c) He read the letter which he had just received.

You see that these sentences resemble those of the preceding section in that each has two clauses. Notice, however, this important difference: the clauses in the sentences of section 9 are equally important, and could be used as simple sentences by merely dropping out the connecting *and*, *but*, or similar word. When you try to make simple sentences out of the two clauses of (a) in this paragraph, these are the results:

First clause: Towser always comes.

Second clause: When he is called.

You see that *when he is called* fails to meet the requirement of every sentence—that of expressing a thought completely. The second clause of (a), therefore, can not be used alone to form a complete sentence. The two clauses together, however, make good sense:

Towser always comes when he is called.

Which is the more important clause of the two? Give a reason for your answer.

Try with (b) and (c) the same experiment that you have just tried with the clauses of (a). Decide in each case which of the two clauses is the more important, and give reasons.

It is evident that some sentences are made up of two or more clauses which are not all of equal importance. Plainly, each of these three sentences contains one clause which depends upon the other clause of the sentence for its meaning.

You have noticed in each of these three cases that the less important clause fails to make sense by itself, and that, if it were not used in connection with the more important clause, it could not be used at all. For this reason, you call the less important clause a dependent or subordinate clause. *Subordinate* means placed in a lower position. The more important clause you call the principal or independent clause.

A subordinate clause expresses a thought which must be spoken or read in connection with the principal part of the sentence; that is, it depends upon its principal clause for existence.

A *principal* clause expresses a thought upon which some other clause depends.

Sentences like these, made up of one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses, are called *complex* sentences.

Complex means made of many parts.

Exercise

Tell which of the following sentences are simple, which are compound, and which are complex:

1. The clerk was unsatisfactory because he was careless.

2. The lights of the moving train shone mistily through the fog.

3. There is only one road by which you can reach Cedar Falls.

4. The machine slid easily over the smooth road.

5. There is a frightful chasm a few miles from the hall, which goes by the name of Merry's Leap.

6. The king must prevail over his counsellors, or he must lose his influence with the people.

7. The machinery was giving trouble, but the manager insisted that the plant must be kept going.

8. The automobile escaped without serious damage, but its occupants were badly injured.

9. I have no plan made, but I feel sure of success.

10. These directions were left here by the supervisor.

11. I hurried because I feared that I was late.

12. A wise man often sees the wisdom of changing his mind, but a fool never does.

13. Hundreds of bathers let the breakers pound them and shrieked joyously at each blow of the waves.

14. *The Eagle* is a summer hotel, but the next house furnishes accommodations for the winter months.

15. When at last the great man spoke, the silence was that of midnight in the forest.

16. The baby clams that were washed up on the beach by the tide scurried for shelter in the sand with the most amazing liveliness.

Exercise

Classify each of the following sentences as simple, compound, or complex. Proceed in this way: find each clause; pick out its subject and predicate; determine whether each clause is principal or subordinate. You will then be able to decide what kind of sentence each is. Note that some sentences are both compound and complex.

1. My good old aunt, who had never parted with me at the close of a holiday without giving me a box of sweets, gave me at this time only a bottle of peppermint.

2. I am one of those who give freely to their friends.

3. People frequently ask advice which they do not intend to follow.

4. He never knew the details of the plot, but he knew the name of every man concerned in it.

5. Neil bent forward and lashed the horse savagely with his whip.

6. The Bible story of Ruth is a perfect story of simple country life among the Hebrews.

7. Backward and forward, with sturdy strokes, he swings the iron tongue of the bell.

8. An old clock that had gone faultlessly for fifty years suddenly stopped.

9. A rubber ball with a hole in it was his favorite

plaything. He would take it into his mouth and rush around the house with it like a child. When he got a new ball, he would hide his old one away until the new one was the worse worn of the two, and then he would bring out the old one again.

10. The song ended with two great shouts, and an intense stillness followed. The old priest stood silent for a moment. Then he lifted his face and spoke.

11. The Princeton quarter-back had darted through the line like a bullet. Without slackening speed he scooped up the ball as he fled toward the Yale goal-line.

12. The boy was sitting on a bench when the elder Seeley entered the steaming room of the training house. The surgeon was removing a muddy bandage. The boy scowled and winced but he made no complaint.

II. THE PARTS OF SPEECH—The Verb

13. What the parts of speech are. If you were asked of what small divisions our speech, both oral and written, is made up, you would probably say, "Our speech is divided into sentences." But sentences are made up of words. The real basis of our speech, then, is the separate words of which it is made up. All the words of our language have been named according to the kinds of work which they do in sentences. There are eight definite duties which words perform in the making of sentences. Every word of the language, then, can be put into a class determined by one of these eight duties; and each of these duties has a name that identifies it. The words of the language, classified under the head of the eight duties of words, are called the *parts of speech*.

The only reason that a word belongs to one part of speech rather than another, is that it does the work of that part.

14. What the verb does.

Carl throws pennies to the children.

The subject of this sentence is *Carl*; the whole predicate is *throws pennies to the children*.

The whole predicate in the sentence given above expresses the action performed by the subject. There is one particular word in the predicate, which, more

than any other, tells the exact action performed by Carl. This word is *throws*.

Pennies tells what Carl throws; *to the children* tells to whom he throws the pennies; but *throws* tells the exact action performed by Carl.

Exercise

Divide each of the following sentences into a subject and a predicate. Then point out in each predicate the word which tells the exact action performed by the subject.

- (a) Mabel plays the piano.
- (b) The boy broke five glasses.
- (c) The sun shines.
- (d) The birds ate all the crumbs.
- (e) We planted ferns in our yard.
- (f) Marion always wears pink sashes.
- (g) John swept the porch.
- (h) Harry drives our car.
- (i) Engineers control engines.

The words, *plays*, *broke*, *shines*, etc., in each case express the action the sentence is telling you about. Because these words perform a special duty in the predicate, they have a name of their own; this name is *verb*.

Words which express action are called *verbs*.

Exercise

Select the verbs from the predicates of these sentences:

1. The cat spilled her milk.
2. Mary, kindly close the door.
3. Farmers make hay in July.
4. Eleanor cried because she had hurt her hand.
5. William transplanted his strawberry plants.
6. The flag waved from the pole.
7. The fire bell sounded clearly through the air.
8. Auntie read the note quickly.
9. The children loved their white rabbits.
10. Robert picked flowers for his birthday party.
11. Lawyer Andrews lost the case.
12. John posted your letter promptly.
13. New York State remodels her constitution every twenty years.
14. Physicians make careful examinations of patients.
15. The use of the typewriter strengthens the fingers.
16. Cows produce milk.
17. The young trees sway in the wind.
18. Leaves fall in autumn.
19. Mirrors sometimes flatter people.

15. The linking verb. Read the following sentences, carefully dividing them into their subjects and predicates:

- (a) The firemen were here.
- (b) My sister is asleep.
- (c) You seem nervous.

It is plain to you at once that no one of these predicates expresses an action performed by the subject. These predicates merely make a statement about the subject, and this statement has nothing to do with action. You conclude, then, that

predicates sometimes merely make statements about the subject without expressing action at all.

If a predicate makes a statement about a subject without expressing action, there is always some one word in the predicate which acts as a linking word to join the subject and predicate. In (a), for example, the subject is *firemen*. The whole predicate is *were here*. *Here* tells the place where the firemen were. *Were* is the word which bridges the gap between the subject, *firemen*, and the place where the firemen were. *Were* links the subject *firemen* with the place where the firemen were, and is at the same time part of the predicate.

Whole predicate, *were here*.

Linking word, at same time part of predicate, *were*.

In (b), the subject is *sister*. The whole predicate is *is asleep*. *Asleep* tells the condition of my sister. In this sentence, then, *is* links or connects *sister* with *asleep*, and is at the same time part of the predicate.

Whole predicate, *is asleep*.

Linking word, at same time part of predicate, *is*.

In (c) *you* is the subject. *Seem nervous* is the whole predicate. *Seem* is the word in the predicate which links the subject *you* to the remaining part of the predicate.

When a predicate makes a statement about a subject but does not express action, there is always a word which links the subject to the predicate.

Such words are called *linking words*, and as parts of speech are classified under the same name as the words that express action about a subject. Words that link the subject and predicate are called *verbs*.

Exercise

Select the linking verbs in the following sentences:

1. Henry is pale.
2. Swimming in deep water is dangerous.
3. Spring-time is moving time.
4. Mary seems herself again.
5. Are all here?
6. There is no time like the present.
7. Flowers are a comfort to sick people.
8. It is hard work to study properly.
9. Forks are table necessities.
10. The picnic was a success.
11. Fred seemed uncomfortable.

Exercise

From these sentences, tell which verbs are linking, and which express action:

1. The cow jumped over the moon.
2. Cobb is a great ball-player.
3. I brushed the crumbs from the table.
4. Her eyes are gray.
5. This screen hides me from the street.
6. The door banged.
7. Mary cut the apple into four quarters.
8. Mother gave me six cookies.
9. Harry's father punished him for disobedience.
10. He seemed uneasy.
11. Keep off the grass.
12. Football is a wonderful game.
13. My grandmother made candles.
14. Samuel knocked a ball into center field.
15. Colleges are places for the education of the young.
16. No self-respecting boy lies.

17. Cheating is dishonorable.
18. Without doubt, Austin expected the prize.
19. High marks are usually signs of good work.

16. The transitive verb.

John broke his slate.

This sentence contains an action verb. Separate the sentence into its subject and predicate. *John* is the subject; *broke his slate* is the predicate. The verb in that predicate is *broke*. *Broke* expresses action. But does *broke* tell you all you need to know about that action? In other words, if you ended the sentence after the word *broke*, would the expression of action be complete? If you say, *John broke*, your natural question is, *Broke what?* You see then that *broke* alone does not tell you all you need to know about the action expressed in this sentence. *Slate* completes the action partly expressed by *broke* because it receives the action. *Receives* here means *gets* or *takes in*. You will realize how truly *slate* receives the action from *broke* if you will imagine for an instant how a whole slate looks, and then how a broken slate looks.

Notice that in the sentence, *His slate was broken by John*, you can express the same thought in a different way. The subject now is *slate*. The predicate is *was broken*. *Was broken* clearly expresses action. The slate was broken. *Slate*, then, just as before, receives the action from the verb. You see the same picture when you think of the action expressed in this way. All sentences containing a verb which denotes action received can be expressed in two ways.

Exercise

From each of these sentences select the action verb and the word which receives the action:

1. I dropped my watch.
2. My watch was dropped by me.
3. The farmer ploughed his field.
4. His field was ploughed by the farmer.
5. The boys built a camp.
6. A camp was built by the boys.
7. The flood destroyed bridges.
8. Bridges were destroyed by the flood.
9. The baby tore my dress.
10. My dress was torn by the baby.
11. Jim learned his lesson well.
12. Jim's lesson was well learned.
13. Walter won the championship.
14. The championship was won by Walter.
15. Mary felt a shock from the electric iron.
16. A shock from the electric iron was felt by Mary.

You see then that some action verbs require in the sentence a word to receive that action in order to express a complete thought.

A verb which expresses action that is received by some word in the sentence is called a *transitive* verb. *Transitive* means passing over. A transitive verb really does pass over the action that it expresses to some other word in the sentence.

[17. Voice. In section 16 you learned that all sentences containing a verb which denotes action received can be expressed in two ways. The *voice* of

the verb is determined by the way in which the verb expresses the action. In the sentence,

John broke his slate,

John, the subject, acts; its verb is said to be in the active voice. Turn the sentence around:

His slate was broken by John. Here the subject, *slate*, is the word which receives the action; instead of acting, this subject allows itself to be acted upon. This is the very opposite of acting, and so the name given to the voice of the verb in this sentence is passive. *Passive* means inactive.

The reason why it is necessary for you to be able to tell the voice of a verb is that the form of the verb changes according to the way in which that verb expresses action.

In the sentence, *John broke his slate*, *John*, the subject of the verb, is performing the act.

Compare the verb, *broke*, in this sentence with the verb in the passive form: *His slate was broken by John*.

The subject of this sentence is *slate*, which receives the action.

The two forms of the verb, then, are:

With subject performing action, *broke*.

With subject receiving action, *was broken*.

A verb is said to be in the *active* voice when its subject acts. A verb is said to be in the *passive* voice when its subject is acted upon.

To test the voice of a verb, therefore, look at its subject.

Exercise

Tell whether each of these verbs is in the active or the passive voice:

1. The race was won by persistent effort.
2. The fireman flung himself into the building.
3. Lightning shattered that tree.
4. Those stones are placed there for landmarks.
5. The car was overturned instantly.
6. The gun was loaded with cartridges.
7. The goods were charged to me.
8. I like exciting books.
9. I lost my way when I turned into Sixth Street.
10. Many are called but few are chosen.

Exercise

Select the verbs from the following sentences. State the voice of each with your reason, and state also why each is a transitive verb. Model sentence:

The message was brought by a boy.

The verb *was brought* is in the passive voice because its subject, *message*, is acted upon. *Was brought* is a transitive verb, because it expresses the action received by *message*.

1. I could see the bird under the vines.
2. I drew the ropes tight.
3. He warned the tramp in time.
4. Merivale spent a restless month.
5. This year I have felt the great beauty of the world.
6. The poor creature was wronged by everybody.
7. Mrs. Cubb was rudely thrust out of the house.

8. My boys never mentioned Georgiana.
9. The candidate was defeated by a large majority.
10. We were enabled to recognize the criminal by a photograph.
11. Mrs. Walters pressed her lips closely together and shook her head.
12. The letter had been written in great haste.
13. Signs warning motorists were posted a mile apart.
14. The boy has annoyed me more than once.
15. Sylvia wore big blue rosettes in her hair.
16. That book has been read by many happy children.
17. I picked my first dish of strawberries this morning.
18. He was not even tempted to wrong his employer.
19. I carried the red bird over to Georgiana.
20. The check was received on the same day.

Sometimes you will be puzzled by action verbs because the action they express is not the kind that you can see with your eyes. The action that you perceive with your brain is just as truly action as any other. For instance, in the sentence, *Jim learned his lesson well*, the action of learning goes on in Jim's mind; you cannot see it; but the teacher can perceive the results of it. In the sentence, *Mother needs me*, you cannot see with your eyes that there is action, but you can understand that *needs* expresses a mental action—the action of wanting or of feeling the necessity of *me*.

18. The intransitive verb. You have just been studying the fact that some action verbs express action that is received by some word in the sentence, and that such verbs are called transitive. Here is a

sentence in which there is a different kind of action verb:

Mary fell.

How is this action verb different from those you have just studied? You see instantly that the action of *fell* is not received by any other word in the sentence. Since *fell* does not pass action over into any other word in the sentence, *fell* is called an intransitive verb. *Intransitive* means not-passing-over.

An *intransitive* verb is one whose action is not received by some other word in the sentence.

Action verbs as a whole, then, are divided into two classes:

(1) Those whose action is received by some other word in the sentence. (Transitive.)

(2) Those whose action is not received by another word. (Intransitive.)

Transitive verbs possess two ways of expressing action, according to whether the subject acts or is acted upon. You distinguish these ways by the name *voice*, as you learned, and you determine voice by looking carefully at the subject. If the subject acts, the verb is in the active voice; if the subject is acted upon, the verb is in the passive voice. You need these distinctions because two ways of expression are possible.

But the intransitive verb possesses only one way of expressing action, for, since the action of this verb is never received, the subject always acts. Intransi-

tive verbs, therefore, do not have voice. Of course you can see that if you were to give a name to the way in which the intransitive verb expresses action, you would say that all intransitive verbs are in the active voice.

Exercise

Tell why each of the verbs in the following sentences is intransitive.

1. The fire alarm rang.
2. The horses ran fast.
3. The noise of the guns ceased.
4. I awoke early this morning.
5. He hurried from the house and jumped into the car.
6. The picture hangs on the wall.
7. The lights went out.
8. The crash came without warning.

Exercise

Select the verbs from the following sentences and tell whether they are transitive or intransitive. Give also the voice of the transitive verbs.

1. I threw a penny to the organ-grinder.
2. The attendance is taken each morning at school.
3. Jane slipped and fell and broke her wrist.
4. The bread rose too high.
5. John was graduated from college in June.
6. Wagon-wheels creak on cold winter days.
7. Harry cranked the car.
8. Leaves drop in autumn.
9. The canoe slipped silently through the water.
10. Railroad time-tables are sometimes changed.

11. The books crashed to the floor.
12. The speaker was introduced by the chairman.
13. I set my watch at noon.
14. I believe every word of your story.
15. Atlas held the world on his shoulders.
16. The telegram arrived before I returned.
17. The painter fell from the scaffold.

From a magazine like "The Literary Digest" or "The Independent" select any paragraph of ten lines or so in length. Pick out the verbs. Tell whether each is transitive or intransitive. Give the voice of the transitive verbs.

Verb forms, sequence of tenses, and the agreement of a verb with its subject, are treated in chapter XII.

III. THE PARTS OF SPEECH—The Noun

19. **What the noun is.** A boy who looks about him on a baseball field is able to explain to one who is unfamiliar with the game all the details necessary to the understanding of the game. In such an explanation he will use the words *diamond*, *base*, *short-stop*, *curve*, *home-plate*, and many others. As he uses each of these words he points out or describes the thing or movement each names. Words which name things or people make up the part of speech called the noun.

A *noun* is the name of a person, place, or thing.

20. **Common and proper nouns.** A boy at a game of baseball sees the opposing teams come running to the field. "Look," he cries, "there's Slater, the best pitcher in the league! And there's Curtiss, our short-stop!" The words *Slater* and *Curtiss* serve as names for these men. Therefore these words are nouns. They differ from the nouns *diamond*, *base*, and *home-plate*. *Diamond*, *base*, and *home-plate* name a whole class of things that are more or less alike. Any of these words could be applied to other diamonds, other bases, other home-plates. *Slater* and *Curtiss* name particular men. These names could not be applied to any man one might meet. In a similar way, *New York* and *New Jersey* name particular states.

The noun that names a whole class of persons, places, or things, is a *common* noun.

Example: *ship, man, city*. Each of these words names a whole class of objects.

The noun that names a particular one of a class of persons, places, or things, is a *proper* noun.

Example: *The Constitution, George Washington, Cincinnati*. Each of these words names a particular one of its class.

Every proper noun should begin with a capital letter. This fact constitutes the chief reason why you should be able to distinguish between a common and a proper noun.

Exercise

Select each of the nouns in the following sentences and tell whether it is a common or a proper noun:

1. Miles Morgan smiled and shook his head.
2. Sergeant O'Hara called the men heroes.
3. It was his plan to ride until he reached Massacre Mountain.
4. Grass and ferns grew around the spring.
5. The family always sang hymns after supper.
6. He had a sword that his great-grandfather had worn under Washington.
7. George came to his feet and pointed his revolver steadily.
8. Human companionship gives us all courage.
9. "A small band of Indians is on your trail," he said; "Black Wolf and his scouts are in the band."
10. We heard the clatter of steel and the jingling of harness and an order ringing out far and clear.

11. The group of officers in the tent was silent.

12. The general spoke. "We must get word to Captain Weldon immediately," said he.

21. Person. Every noun names (1) the speaker of the sentence, or (2) the person spoken to in the sentence, or (3) the person or thing spoken of in the sentence.

(a) I, Marian Allen, am here to represent the Girl Scouts.

The noun *Marian Allen* in this sentence names the speaker. **When a noun names the speaker, the noun is said to be in the *first person*.**

(b) Marian Allen, will you please state your errand here?

The noun *Marian Allen* in this sentence names the person spoken to. **When a noun names the person spoken to, the noun is said to be in the *second person*.**

(c) The Girl Scouts chose Marian Allen to represent them.

Marian Allen in this sentence names the person spoken of.

(d) Bring me that book.

Book in this sentence names the thing spoken of. **When a noun names the person or thing spoken of, the noun is said to be in the *third person*.**

Exercise

Tell the person of each noun in the following paragraph:

Shall I, your president, not tell you the truth? Will you, the citizens of a great republic, not listen to the truth? There is only one path for a righteous nation to follow; that is the path of justice.

22. Inflection. A change in the form of a word is called *inflection*. A word is said to be *inflected* when its form is changed to show number, gender, etc.

23. Number. What, to your mind, is the difference between *desk* and *desks*? *sword* and *swords*?

Desk stands for one object; *desks* for more than one. *Sword* stands for one object; *swords* for more than one.

To tell whether a word stands for one object, or for more than one, is to tell the number of that word.

A word which indicates one object is said to be in the *singular* number. Singular means denoting one only.

A word which indicates more than one object is said to be in the *plural* number. Plural means denoting more than one.

Most plurals are formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular, as:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
book	books	envelope	envelopes
box	boxes	grain	grains

Whether you add *es* instead of *s* depends upon whether the *s* unites readily with the singular ending. What is the plural of *box*? *Boxs* is hard to pronounce; *boxes*, is easy to pronounce. Always keep this idea in mind when forming plurals.

Exercise

Give the plurals of the following nouns:

glass	bed	wagon	knob	store	magazine
switch	pole	paper	house	fox	track
church	picture	chair	gate	grammar	calendar

In forming some plurals you must observe exceptions to the general rule. To learn these intelligently you must know that certain letters of the alphabet are *vowels*, and the others *consonants*. *A, e, i, o, and u*, are the vowels; all the rest are consonants.

For example:

24. The plural of nouns ending in *y*.

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
lady	ladies	misery	miseries
story	stories	city	cities
tragedy	tragedies	outcry	outcries
variety	varieties	discovery	discoveries
activity	activities	memory	memories
security	securities	anxiety	anxieties
ecstasy	ecstasies	penalty	penalties
energy	energies	fancy	fancies
fly	flies	company	companies

Now study the singulars for a moment and see whether there is any resemblance upon which you can form a rule that will guide you. Each singular

ends in *y*. In each case the *y* is preceded by a consonant. These are the resemblances in the singular forms. Note that in the plurals the *y* in each case changes to *i*, and then *es* is added in the usual way. Can you not now see a guiding rule?

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change the *y* to *i*, and add *es* to form the plural.

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
monkey	monkeys	survey	surveys
key	keys	outlay	outlays
doorway	doorways	convoy	convoys
mainstay	mainstays	delay	delays
essay	essays	chimney	chimneys

Do you note any resemblance between these singulars and those of the words in the preceding paragraph? These singulars, like those above, end in *y*. What difference between the two do you note? The final *y* of the words in the earlier group was preceded by a consonant; the final *y* of the words in this group is preceded by a vowel.

When the *y* is preceded by a vowel, the plural is formed in the usual way.

25. The plural of nouns ending in *f*.

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
loaf	loaves	wife	wives
self	selves	beef	beeves
thief	thieves	half	halves
knife	knives	calf	calves
leaf	leaves	sheaf	sheaves
elf	elves	life	lives
shelf	shelves	wolf	wolves

In studying these singulars you note that all the nouns end in *f*. To form the plural, each noun changes the *f* to *v* and adds *es*. These nouns are exceptions to the general rule. All the other nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form the plural in the usual way. For example:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
belief	beliefs
relief	reliefs

26. Change of vowel in plural. Some nouns change the vowel of the singular in order to form the plural instead of following the usual custom. You simply have to learn such plurals. Some of them are:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
mouse	mice	foot	feet
tooth	teeth	louse	lice
woman	women	goose	geese

27. Plural of nouns ending in *o*. Sometimes it is hard to tell whether nouns ending in *o* should add *s* or *es*. This has to be learned through practice. Some of those which add *es* are:

mosquito	negro	echo	tomato	potato
motto	volcano	cargo	hero	

Others, which add merely *s*, are:

dynamo	memento	folio	piano
cameo	halo	alto	solo

28. Miscellaneous plurals. Some nouns have the same form for the plural as for the singular; as,

trout	sheep	heathen
deer	swine	salmon

An old plural survives in the following plurals:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
child	children	ox	oxen
maid	maidens	brother	brethren

Brother has also the plural *brothers*.

Some nouns possess a plural form only. Some of these are:

scissors	politics	tidings
riches	victuals	athletics
thanks	trousers	gymnastics

Some nouns have no plural:

electricity	poverty
rheumatism	gold
air (atmosphere)	

29. Plural of compounds. Sometimes by uniting two or more words a compound noun is formed. Compound nouns usually form the plural from the principal word without changing the modifying word. For example:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
blackboard	blackboards
schoolhouse	schoolhouses
bookworm	bookworms
brother-in-law	brothers-in-law

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
commander-in-chief	commanders-in-chief
passer-by	passers-by
Englishman	Englishmen

A few compounds are irregular; as,

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
manservant	menservants
German	Germans

The plural of compound nouns ending in *ful* is formed by adding *s* to the last syllable:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
spoonful	spoonfuls	cupful	cupfuls

To indicate that more than one spoon or cup is filled, say spoons full, cups full.

30. Plural of letters and figures. The plurals of letters and figures are formed by placing an apostrophe before the *s*: *t's*, *5's*.

31. Plural of proper nouns. You will need to study especially the plurals of proper nouns. The plural of Mr. Vail is the Messrs. Vail, though it is possible to speak of the two Mr. Vails. The plural of Miss Lee is the Misses Lee, though it is possible to say the two Miss Lees. But for more than one Mrs. Lee, there is but one form, the Mrs. Lees.

The plurals of proper nouns are formed in the same way as those of common nouns.

32. Foreign plurals. In addition to these there are many nouns which form their plural after a foreign

model. You must give them special study. For example:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
tableau	tableaux	memorandum	memoranda
beau	beaux	stratum	strata
erratum	errata	phenomenon	phenomena
alumnus	alumni	alumna	alumnae
analysis	analyses	parenthesis	parentheses
vertebra	vertebrae	crisis	crises
basis	bases	axis	axes
appendix	appendices		

33. Plural of collective nouns. There is a group of nouns, which, although singular in form, denotes a number of individuals. Such nouns are sometimes called collective; they may all be used in the plural.¹

club	group	team
class	audience	dozen
congregation	pair	nation
society	family	

Grammatical facts like these have to be memorized so that you can use them. In case of doubt about a plural form, however, you should always look up the noun in the dictionary. Directly after the noun, if the plural is irregular, you will find the plural form given. If the plural is formed in the regular way, by adding *s* or *es*, no mention of it will be made.

¹ For use with verbs see p. 144.

Exercise

Write the plural of the following words:

picture	chart	camera	negro	crisis
variety	engraving	doily	biscuit	bat
hospital	bookcase	calf	essay	piano
looking-glass	rug	trousers	scout	German
Irishman	clay	Turk	football	armchair
typewriter	dress	mattress	waist	college
pocketbook	toast	hay-rake	pillow	couch
Miss Rogers	delay	lounge	lawyer	beau
bureau	shelf	maid	diamond	village
sofa-pillow	dollar	umpire	fatality	postman

Write from memory, in sentences, five words which possess only singular forms.

Use in sentences: *news, sheep, heathen.*

Tell the number of each noun in the following sentences:

1. Lucy bought five dozens of buttons.
2. These shoes are worth three dollars the pair.
3. The ponies leaped over the gravelly ground.
4. There are three l's in parallel.
5. Please give these letters to the Misses Sackville.
6. Two packages have arrived by post for Mr. Roberts.
7. The farmer had already yoked his oxen to the plough.
8. What one sheep does all the other sheep will do.
9. Is the mail in yet?
10. Make your 8's plain, without any flourishes.
11. The lads took their spades and went to work.
12. The collision resulted in bent fenders and damaged headlights.

13. A griddle heated by electricity means hot cakes without trouble.

14. What kinds of oil have you?

15. The starters on these cars are guaranteed.

Turn to the advertising pages of some newspaper. Make a list of twenty singular nouns and twenty plural nouns which you find in these pages.

34. Gender. Nouns are said to have *gender* according to whether they name a male, a female, or a thing. A noun which names a male, is said to be *masculine* in gender; a noun which names a female, is said to be *feminine* in gender; a noun which names a thing, is said to be *neuter* in gender.

35. The work of the noun—the nominative. The noun has many duties in the sentence. One of these is to act as subject. In the sentence, *The bridge fell*, the whole subject is *The bridge*; the fact that the noun *bridge* is the word in the subject that carries the force and does the real subject work is evident. In *The cheerful, whistling boy made me smile*, the whole subject is *The cheerful, whistling boy*. Yet the fact that the noun *boy* is the word that does the real subject work is evident. Whether a subject consists of one word or more than one, there is always a noun that can be separated as doing the actual subject work. The word *subject*, then, sometimes refers to the whole subject, and sometimes to the one noun that is doing the actual work. In this text, from this point on, the word *subject* is used to refer to the

single noun, or, in a compound subject, to whatever words are doing the actual subject work of naming.

As stated in the preceding paragraph, the noun has several duties. According to the duty which the noun is performing, the noun is said to have case. There are three cases: the nominative, the possessive, and the objective. Certain uses of the noun are said to be in certain cases.

A noun used as subject is said to be in the *nominative* case.

In the sentence, *John, please come here, John* is used as an expression of address.

A noun used to express direct address is said to be in the *nominative* case.

My name is Walter.

Here you see that the noun *name* is used as the subject. To find how the noun *Walter* is used, divide the sentence up into subject and predicate. Here, *my name* is the subject; *is Walter* is the predicate. *Walter* surely is part of the predicate; it also bears a certain relationship to the subject. *Walter* and *name*, the subject, mean exactly the same thing. *Walter*, therefore, is said to be a predicate nominative, and is in the nominative case.

A noun in the predicate which means exactly the same as the subject is called a *predicate nominative* or *predicate noun*.

Exercise

Select the nouns used as predicate nominatives in this group of sentences:

1. Our hurrying was empty bustle, after all.
2. This invention is the answer to all our difficulties.
3. Labor is life's sweetest joy.
4. The prize was a five-dollar gold-piece.
5. My favorite book is "Huckleberry Finn."
6. New York is America's greatest market.
7. The river at night is a smooth piece of glass,
The fog a faint cloud that bends o'er it;
But the fresh morning air makes a gay rippling
mass,
And drives water and cloud-mist before it.
8. Gerhardt was a German shepherd boy.
9. The road is a winding path.

Exercise

Tell how each noun is used in the following sentences. Do not name the case as you perform the exercise; merely tell *how* the noun is used, or the function of that noun. *Function* means "special work."

1. The train has come, Edith.
2. My basket fell.
3. My hand hurts.
4. Mary is my sister.
5. That horse ran away.
6. Mr. Morris is our choir-leader.
7. A rock slid and struck us.
8. Mary Long is organist here.
9. My father is ill.

10. Our teacher has gone away.
11. Oh, John! Don't run so!
12. Time flies swiftly.
13. My birds are my pets.
14. Clocks tick loudly.
15. Squeaky noises annoy me.
16. Barbed wire fences are a nuisance.
17. Where are you going, my pretty maid?
18. Here, Fido! puppies must eat!
19. His weapon was a large rifle.

36. The possessive case.¹ In the sentence,

John's hat is here,

there are two nouns. *Hat* is the noun used as subject. *John's* tells whose hat is here; *John's* also tells who possesses the *hat*. This is another important use of the noun—to show possession.

Nouns which show possession are said to be in the *possessive case*. Here are examples:

1. My sister's flowers have come.
2. The horse's mane is long.
3. The bee's sting is painful.
4. The teacher's voice is agreeable.
5. The carpenter's work is done.

These examples show that the form of the noun in the possessive case is a little different from that of the nominative. The possessive case is distinguished from the nominative by the addition of an apostrophe and *s* to the nominative form.

¹ The possessive case is sometimes called the genitive case.

Exercise

Select the nouns in the possessive case:

1. Mary's mother is ill.
2. That man's day is always spoiled by laziness.
3. The clergyman's advice helped me.
4. Edward's messenger did not reach us.
5. Elsie's desire was not granted by her mother.
6. Miss Mack's progress has been remarkable.
7. Murray's team brought us from the station.
8. Nobody's business is everybody's business.
9. The children's toys lay strewn about the floor.
10. The boy's father insisted that he should obey.

Only nouns referring to *living beings* are usually put in the possessive case. The possessive of things is usually denoted in the way indicated below.

Bad: The magazine's cover had been torn.

Good: The cover of the magazine had been torn.

Bad: The roof's shingles had been gradually dropping off.

Good: The shingles on the roof had been gradually dropping off.

Bad: The mountain's top is covered with snow.

Good: The top of the mountain is covered with snow.

A possessive which is awkward, even though it refers to a group of persons, should not be used. For example:

Bad: The class's average was eighty-five per cent.

Good: The average of the class was eighty-five per cent.

If the noun ends in the letter *s*, the apostrophe and *s* may be added in the same way to form the possessive case. Example:

Curtis's bat is lying in the yard.

Frequently, however, the possessive of a noun ending in *s* is formed by merely adding the apostrophe. Example:

Curtis' bat is lying in the yard.

The possessive of plurals ending in *s* is made by adding an apostrophe to the plural form. Examples:

The girls' association made many Christmas gifts for poor children.

The Mothers' Pension bill received hearty support.

The possessive of plurals not ending in *s* is formed by adding an apostrophe and *s*. Example:

The children's clothes were torn.

Exercise

Select the nouns in the possessive case:

1. The neighbors like the Joneses' children.
2. Men's voices are lower than women's voices.
3. Thomas's father gave him a motor cycle.
4. We shall call at the Misses Roberts' home this evening.
5. Mr. Wells's honesty and ability were known to all.
6. The Trumans' new car stood in front of the house.
7. The fame of Theodore Fairbanks' family has spread far and wide.

Exercise

Select all the possessives in the following sentences. Tell whether the nouns are singular or plural.

1. Boys' games are more attractive than girls' games.
2. Odysseus' men were detained at Circe's palace by trickery.
3. Francis' talent for drawing was the source of both pleasure and profit to him.
4. The librarian's kindness extends to every one.
5. The engineer's presence of mind saved many lives.
6. The pupils recognized the teacher's fairness.
7. Mr. Yates's income amounts to over a million dollars yearly.
8. The Ladies' Aid Society will meet at seven o'clock.
9. Mr. Brander Matthews' book on the short story is interesting.
10. Charles' tennis racket has disappeared.
11. Laborers' wages are higher now than they used to be.

Exercise

Insert the apostrophe and add s wherever needed in the following sentences:

1. Charles report was better than James.
2. We stopped at Candor for a few minutes rest.
3. The matrons objection to visitors made the hospital unpopular.
4. Burns poetry was greatly admired by James Whitcomb Riley.
5. Georges companions always enjoyed his tales of the fun at the boys school which he attended.
6. They use goats milk instead of cows milk in Switzerland.

37. The objective case—the direct object.

John broke his slate.

From previous study you know that *John* is the subject and that *broke his slate* is the whole predicate. You know that *broke* is the part of the predicate that expresses action. *Broke* sends this action to the word *slate*. If you were to tell, then, what *slate* does in this sentence, you would say that *slate* names the receiver of the action expressed by the verb *broke*. A single word will say all that for you. The word in the sentence which receives the action directly from the verb is called the *object* of that verb. Often, because the noun receives the action directly, you will call it the direct object.

The *direct object* of a verb names the receiver of the action expressed by the verb.

All nouns used as direct objects are said to be in the *objective*¹ case.

Exercise

Select all the direct objects in the following sentences:

1. Rex passed his examination.
2. The hail broke the glass of the wind shield.
3. The racers broke all former records.
4. The Legislature passed the Child Labor Bill.
5. We use hard pencils.
6. The chauffeur mended the tire.
7. The thief returned the purse.

¹ The objective case is sometimes called the accusative case.

8. Who started this war?
9. I take my lunch every day.
10. John acquired the bad habit of talking in school.
11. I have lost a dollar.
12. He dreaded the sandstorms of the West.
13. The girls wrote themes this morning.
14. Wright perfected the airplane.
15. The real inventors rarely get the credit for their work.
16. I bought two tickets.
17. Business men send many letters.
18. Submarines destroy large ships.

Write ten sentences of your own, employing the direct object. Describe, for example, what you would see if you were looking through the door into the gymnasium, or into a kitchen, or into a library.

38. The indirect object.¹

Father gave Mary the basket.

Father is the subject of this sentence; *basket* is a noun used as direct object for it receives direct action from the verb *gave*.

What about the noun *Mary*? Is or is not *Mary* affected by the action of the verb *gave*? Certainly *basket* receives the direct action of being transferred from *Father* to *Mary*. *Mary*, as the result of the direct action, has a basket. If *Father* had not given the *basket*, *Mary* would not have received it. So you distinguish the action sent to *Mary* from the action sent to *basket* by calling the action sent to *Mary* the

¹The indirect object is sometimes said to be in the dative case.

indirect action of the verb, and the action sent to *basket* the direct action of the verb. Consequently, since the noun *Mary* receives the indirect action of the verb, *Mary* is called the indirect object, by the same reasoning as that by which the *basket* is called the direct object.

Indirect objects usually follow verbs meaning to *send*, *give*, *show*, *lend*, *grant*, *refuse*, *forgive*, *get*, *buy*, *hand*, and the like.

The noun used as indirect object is said to be in the *objective* case.

Examples of the indirect object follow:

- (1) Please show *John* the house.
- (2) The boys gave the *team* a rousing cheer.
- (3) You sent *Mrs. Hart* the wrong bill.
- (4) Esther gave the *baby* medicine.
- (5) Mother sends *Katie* a check for her board.
- (6) Father buys *Caroline* new music.

Note that the noun used as indirect object never is preceded by any such word as *to* or *for*. Such words may be understood by the reader of the sentence, but they are never expressed before the indirect object.¹

Exercise

Select the indirect objects:

1. Hand the chauffeur that screwdriver, please.
2. Father gave Dan more money.
3. Father gave more money to Dan.

¹ For the government of nouns by prepositions see section 41.

4. Do not refuse John this request.
5. This man owes Mr. Richards money.
6. She offered her sister a good position.
7. Will you lend your employer your car?
8. Please sell Mrs. Lee an embroidered tablecloth.
9. I can get the baby his medicine.
10. Mother did Miss Stevens a great service.
11. I promised father that I would give Luey this letter.

Write sentences of your own, using an indirect object after each of the following verbs: *promise, send, give, get, lend, owe, offer, grant, forgive, refuse, sell*.¹

39. The appositive.

Study this sentence:

Henry, my brother, has bought a new launch.

You can dispose of all but one of the nouns in this sentence by means of what you have already learned. The exception is the word *brother*. The word *brother* is plainly put in here to explain the word *Henry*. *Brother* is not the subject of the sentence; *Henry* is clearly the subject. *Brother* is said to be in *apposition* with the subject, *Henry*.

An *appositive* is a noun used to make clear another noun that denotes the same person, place, or thing.

¹ Additional uses of the noun in the objective case are the objective complement, the cognate object, the secondary object, and the retained object. Examples of these uses are:

Objective complement: They named George *captain*.

Cognate object: They slept the *sleep* of the dead.

Secondary object: He asked me the *number* of our telephone.

Retained object: Henry was given the *position*.

None of these uses presents any functional difficulty; there is no use, therefore, of burdening the student with classifications.

The appositive is said to be in the same case as the noun with which it is in apposition.

An appositive is usually set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.

An example of an appositive which need not be set off by commas occurs when the sentence is of this kind:

Professor Ellis, this is my son *Robert*.

IV. THE PARTS OF SPEECH—The Preposition

40. What the preposition is. In order to understand one of the commonest uses of the noun, you must here learn another part of speech. The duty of this part of speech is to show relationship.

The car crashed over the embankment.

If you separate from this sentence the words which really carry the idea of what happened, you select three: *car*, *crashed*, *embankment*. The relationship between *car* and *crashed* you know; *car* is the subject, *crashed* the predicate of the sentence. But what is the relationship between *crashed* and *embankment*? There are several possibilities. The car may have gone up, down, around, or over the embankment. The word *over* in the sentence tells just what is needed, and in this way defines the relationship between *crashed* and *embankment*. *Over* and other words performing a like duty are *prepositions*.

A *preposition* shows the relationship between a noun and some other word in the sentence.

The preposition is said to govern the noun with which it is used. *To govern* is used here as a briefer way of saying to show relationship.

A noun governed by a preposition is said to be in the objective case.

Here are the prepositions most frequently used:

about	by	over
above	concerning	save
across	despite	since
after	down	through
against	during	throughout
along	ere	till
amid	except	to
among	excepting	toward
around	for	under
before	from	until
behind	in	unto
below	into	up
beside	near	with
between	of	within
beyond	off	without
but	on	

Exercise

Select from the following sentences the prepositions and the nouns which they govern:

1. Let us walk around the block.
2. I saw her name on the list just above my name.
3. The girls of our class are without exception popular.
4. There will be none of my friends there except Mary.
5. Pretty cottages were built on the bank of the river.
6. Everyone has gone to church but Robert.
7. He fought bravely until the end of the horrible struggle.
8. I have waited against my will since eight o'clock.
9. Bobbie chased Rover down the lane.
10. Sit here beside grandmother.
11. Four boys besides Tom reported for scout duty.

12. Notwithstanding my objections, I was taken to the hospital.

13. The fish escaped despite my efforts.

14. All the men save Brutus did what they did in envy of great Cæsar.

There are certain combinations of words which show relationship in exactly the same way as prepositions do, and hence these combinations are called prepositions.

Here are some of them: *In spite of*, *in front of*,¹ *for the sake of*, *in regard to*,² *according to*, *by way of*, *instead of*.

When *out of* occurs in a sentence like this: *Mary helped me out of the car*, *out of* is regarded as a preposition of this kind.

Exercise

Use each of these combinations in a sentence of your own. Exchange your sentences for those of one of your classmates, and select from his sentences the noun governed by the preposition. Name in each case the word to which the noun is related by the preposition.

Try to think of at least three other combinations that are used as prepositions. There are many more.

41. Case of noun governed by a preposition. In the beginning of the chapter you read that learning the preposition would introduce you to one of the commonest uses of the noun. *The use of the noun*

¹ *In back of* is not to be used for *behind* or *back of*, although *in front of* is in good use.

² *In regards to* instead of *in regard to* should be avoided.

governed by a preposition must be grouped with the other uses of the noun in the objective case.

42. The prepositional phrase. The preposition and the noun which it governs are usually referred to together as a prepositional phrase.

43. Difference between a phrase and a clause. Some time ago you learned that a certain group of words is called a clause. The difference between the group of words called a phrase and the group of words called a clause is simply this:

44. A group of related words, without a subject and predicate, doing the work of a single part of speech, is called a *phrase*.

45. A division of a sentence containing a subject and predicate of its own is called a *clause*.

Exercise

Select the phrases and the clauses in the following sentences:

1. Daniel Boone was born in Pennsylvania.

2. Lancelot waited for his antagonist, and then hurled his force against him.

3. When they reached the lists, the young knight was overjoyed by the gorgeous sight that met his eyes in the meadow.

4. When the wind shook the leaves on the trees, he trembled.

5. At sunset Brother Goat placed the blackened doll near the well and ran.

Exercise

Select all the nouns governed by prepositions in these sentences. Name the case of these nouns.

1. The lights in the shop windows threw a broad glare across the ice on the pavements, and the lights from the lamp-posts created strange shadows.

2. The keen wind swept through the cracks.

3. Single rows of new houses stood at different angles across from a field.

4. The carriage dragged its way through pools of water.

5. With your warrant-papers and your badges, you can arrest Loring easily.

6. At the sound of wheels on the gravel, the farmhouse door opened.

7. We gave the man an excuse without any trouble.

8. A murmur of admiration ran through the crowd.

9. The fire crept under the eaves and ignited the roof of the house.

10. Ida has visited her friends in their home.

11. Hefflefinger slipped over the cross-rails, hung for an instant by his hands, and then dropped into the center of the fighting mob on the floor.

12. The arbor is his favorite place for study.

13. Levitt continued in the employ of the company in the capacity of bookkeeper for many years.

14. You can catch a glimpse of the flower-bordered walks of Trinity Hospital.

V. THE PARTS OF SPEECH—The Pronoun

46. What a pronoun is.

John put John's hat on the chair, and turned to open John's mail. Then John's mother called John, and John responded.

What is the trouble with this statement?

Compare it with the following:

John put *his* hat on the chair, and turned to open *his* mail. Then *his* mother called *him*, and *he* responded.

Note that the form of the word used instead of *John* or *John's* is changed according to the use in the sentence.

A word used instead of a noun is a *pronoun*.
Pro means instead of; the word, then, actually means "instead of a noun."

47. The forms of the pronoun. Suppose John is your own name. You will then change the statement as follows:

I put *my* hat down on the chair, and turned to open *my* mail. Then *my* mother called *me*, and *I* responded.

Suppose you are speaking of yourself and your brother. You will then change the statement as follows:

We put *our* hats down on the chair and turned to open *our* mail. Then *our* mother called *us*, and *we* responded.

Suppose you are speaking of two of your friends. You will then change the statement as follows:

They put *their* hats down on the chair, and turned to open *their* mail. Then *their* mother called *them* and *they* responded.

Suppose you are speaking of a friend whose name is Lucy instead of John. You will then change the statement thus:

Lucy put *her* hat down on the chair, and turned to open *her* mail. Then *her* mother called *her*, and *she* responded.

From the changes made in this statement, according to what you wish to express, you draw the conclusions that:

- (1) Pronouns change form according to person.
- (2) Pronouns change form according to number.
- (3) Pronouns sometimes change form according to gender.
- (4) Pronouns change form according to the way in which they are used in the sentence.

Pronouns are said to be in one of the three cases, according to the way in which they are used.

Pronouns, then, are exactly like nouns in that they have person, number, gender, and case.

Pronouns are unlike nouns in that they change their forms decidedly in order to show person, number, gender, and case.

In order to learn the different forms of the pronoun easily, you should learn them in groups. The groups are divided into the group of first person pronouns, that of second person pronouns, and that of third person pronouns. Each group shows all the forms of

that person for both numbers and all the cases. Such a grouping of forms is called a declension.

In addition to expressing the masculine gender by means of *he*, and the feminine gender by means of *she*, the personal pronoun can also stand for a thing without life by means of *it*. *It* is said to be of the neuter gender.

I, you, he, she, it, and their plurals are called the personal pronouns.

48. The forms of the personal pronouns.

FIRST PERSON

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	I	we
<i>Possessive</i>	my, mine	our, ours
<i>Objective</i>	me	us

SECOND PERSON

<i>Nominative</i>	you	you
<i>Possessive</i>	your, yours	your, yours
<i>Objective</i>	you	you

THIRD PERSON

<i>Nominative</i>	{	he		they
		she		
		it		
<i>Possessive</i>	{	his		their, theirs
		her, hers		
		its		
<i>Objective</i>	{	him		them
		her		
		it		

Learn the forms thoroughly, for it is a serious mistake to use one of these forms in the wrong place.

You learned that the pronoun is said to be in a certain case according to the way in which it is used. The pronouns are exactly like the nouns in this respect.

<i>Nominative case</i>	{	subject
		predicate noun (it is called predicate <i>noun</i> even though it is a pronoun).
<i>Possessive case</i>	{	appositive
		used to show possession
<i>Objective case</i>	{	appositive
		direct object
		indirect object
		governed by preposition
		appositive

Exercise

Select all the personal pronouns in these sentences. Tell how they are used. Name the case of each.

1. I know you too well to blame you.
2. He is the president of the class.
3. The teacher sent him from the room.
4. The falling beam struck us.
5. She is a strong-minded girl.
6. Mother scolded her.
7. It tires me to swim.
8. We threw it into the river.
9. You are too generous.
10. I gave him a package to carry.
11. Marie lent her a raincoat.

12. I showed them my new clothes.
13. I bought him a brand new hat.
14. I would say nothing in reply.
15. They expect the guests at seven.
16. He divided the labor evenly.
17. The six o'clock rush at the terminal knocked us down.
18. We asked if we might go, but we were refused.
19. She sewed the seam beautifully.
20. Katie was in the burning house, but she was saved by a brave fireman. She later sent him a note of thanks.

49. **Pronoun with *is*.** When the pronoun is used as predicate noun, it is put in the nominative case. One of the commonest errors made by young people results from forgetting this fact. Here are examples:

1. Who is there?

Right: It is *I*. It is *we*. It is *she*. It is *they*.

2. Is this your friend? This is she. This is he.
3. Which are your friends? These are they.
4. It is we who want you, Mother.
5. It was they who wrecked the train.

Exercise

Supply the proper case form in the blanks:

1. Who is there? It is [them, they].
2. This is [she, her].
3. Mother, this is [me, I].
4. Was it [we, us] of whom you were speaking?
5. Which is your cousin? That is [her, she].
6. It was [him, he] who blamed [us, we].

7. It was [them, they] who reported the trouble.
8. This is [me, I] at the door.
9. Could it have been [her, she]?
10. It was [them, they] for whom I asked.
11. Was it [he, him] who broke this glass?
12. Give it to [us, we] girls.
13. If you were [me, I] what would you do?
14. Were you asking for Miss Blake? I am [she, her].
15. You were asking for the new nurse. This is [she, her].

50. Pronoun governed by a preposition. Like the noun, the pronoun can be governed by a preposition and be the principal word in a prepositional phrase. Such a pronoun is in the objective case.

Exercise

Select the pronouns used in prepositional phrases in the following sentences:

1. He has never asked a favor of me.
2. When she spoke of him, I remembered the story I had heard.
3. Before I left, everything had been arranged for her.
4. Miss Black came to us afterward.
5. Every one of them is strong and well.
6. Nothing could be judged from it except that I ought not to go.
7. Never mention "prize" to me again!
8. Please bring my camera to me.
9. "Life is a beautiful fairy tale," said the fairy, "and every one takes part in it."
10. Some of the window-panes were made of yellow glass; if one looked through them, he saw a world of sunshine.

11. The lady's little daughter stood by her.
12. The candle shone upon her as if it would speak to her.
13. From the branch the man made a plaything, and his children played with it.
14. Stand near us.
15. You will take sides against me?
16. He has never accepted anything from us.
17. The Lord will show mercy unto them that fear Him.
18. "Nothing for you," said the postman.
19. Draw the thread through slowly and make loops of it.

Always use the objective case of the personal pronoun after a preposition. Be particularly careful in this respect when one preposition governs two pronouns. Sometimes people remember to put the first of two such pronouns in the objective case, but are not so attentive to the second. For instance:

Wrong: This book is for you and I.

Right: This book is for you and me.

Select from each set of brackets the proper forms of the pronouns to place in the blanks:

1. These were given to [you and I, you and me].
2. He always works against [Mary and I, Mary and me].
3. Will you try to work for [Mary and me, Mary and I]?
4. Would you be willing to buy tickets for [her and me, she and I]?
5. Yes, Harold came in with [Father and I, Father and me].

6. The praise was given to [he and she, him and her].
7. Whom will you vote for [Esther, Edith, or me; Esther, Edith, or I]?
8. She sat just opposite [Margaret and I, Margaret and me].
9. Was Walter visiting with [you and he, you and him]?
10. The umpire decided against [Jones and me, Jones and I].
11. I hope no quarrel may ever arise between [you and I, you and me].

51. The pronoun as subject. Always use the nominative form of the personal pronoun as the subject. Many people make mistakes like the following:

Wrong: Him and James left at five o'clock.

Right: He and James left at five o'clock.

Exercise

Correct the following sentences:

1. The other boys and us were at the pool.
2. Mary and her were my best friends.
3. John and him knew all the facts.
4. You and her are to blame.
5. You and me could do that in no time.
6. Us boys could not win a point.
7. Her and I made six towels.
8. The Smiths and us have always been good friends.
9. Him and her have had a falling out.
10. Them and I have never got back a cent of the money.
11. Walter and me were invited to the party.

52. The possessive case. The possessive case of the pronoun, like that of the noun, shows possession. Here are some examples of its use:¹

- (a) This is *my* picture.
- (b) This house is *mine*.
- (c) The money is *yours*.
- (d) *Your* tickets are on the table.
- (e) The advantages of the situation are *his*.
- (f) *His* coat hangs on the rack.
- (g) This purse is *hers*.
- (h) The credit is *theirs*.
- (i) *Their* knowledge of the city helped me.
- (j) *Her* gift was gladly accepted.
- (k) This book will do. *Its* contents please me.

The possessive case of the personal pronoun never requires an apostrophe before the *s* of the ending.

53. Agreement of pronoun with its antecedent.

The man did his best.

In this sentence the personal pronoun *his* refers to *man*.

The lady brought her child home.

In this sentence the personal pronoun *her* refers to *lady*.

You should hang up your hat and coat.

In this sentence, *your*, the personal pronoun, refers to another pronoun, *you*.

¹ The distinction sometimes made between the possessive case used as a pronoun and as an adjective is purposely omitted.

Further examination will show you that in each of these cases, the pronoun not only refers to a word that goes before it, but that it bears a certain relationship to that word. Because this word to which the pronoun refers goes before the pronoun, the word is called the antecedent of the pronoun. *Antecedent* means "that which goes before."

The antecedent of a pronoun is the word for which the pronoun stands. The antecedent may be either a noun or a pronoun.

The pronoun must have the same person, number, and gender as its antecedent.

Observe that in the following sentences the pronouns agree with the antecedents in person, number, and gender:

1. *John* sent *his* regards to you.
2. No *one* likes to feel that *he* is being neglected.
3. *Mary* felt that *she* should have been consulted.
4. *Everybody* does as *he* pleases here.
5. The *cousins* left *their* valuables in the safe.
6. The *boy* knew that *his* excuse was flimsy.

The rule that a pronoun must agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender, is often broken when the expressions *any one*, *no one*, *each one*, *every one*, *somebody*, *everybody* are referred to. These words are all singular. A common error consists in using a plural pronoun to refer to one of them. Often the mistake of using a plural pronoun to refer to one of these words leads to a mistake in gender as well. For example:

Wrong: If anybody left their coat, they can get it at the office.

Both *their* and *they* are plural forms used to refer to the singular antecedent *anybody*. Plainly, this sentence should read either

If anybody left *his* coat, *he* can get it in the office,
or

If anybody left *her* coat, *she* can get it in the office.

You will decide whether to use the masculine or feminine pronoun after this fashion:

If the company to which the sentence given above is addressed is made up of both men and women, the pronoun used to refer to *anybody* is the masculine.

Right: If anybody left his coat, he can get it at the office.

If the company addressed is made up entirely of women, the pronoun referring to *anybody* is feminine.

Right: If anybody left her coat, she can get it at the office.

To sum up, then, the masculine form of the pronoun is used to refer to an antecedent that may be either masculine or feminine. The masculine form is always used to refer to a masculine antecedent; the feminine form is always used to refer to a feminine antecedent.

Exercise

Select from each set of brackets the proper forms to insert in the blanks in the following sentences:

1. Every soldier loved [his, their] leader devotedly, and obeyed [him, them] without question.
2. Every girl brought [their, her] bathing suit to camp.
3. Every boy in this school must do [their, his] work each day.
4. Every day brings [its, their] own duty, [its, their] own pleasure.
5. Tell each girl to write [her, their] name in the upper corner.
6. No one knows what [their, his, her] end may be.
7. Somebody has neglected [his, their] duty.
8. No one has ever made [his, her, their] mark without effort.
9. Each girl may have a ticket if [she, they] will promise to take care of it.
10. No boy was permitted to enter unless [they, he] showed a pass.
11. If each person looks out for [their, his, her] own belongings, there will be no trouble.

Exercise

Select all the personal pronouns in the following selections. Tell how each is used in the sentence.

- (a) A Dormouse was sitting between the March Hare and the Hatter as they were having their tea. The Dormouse was fast asleep, and they used it as a cushion, leaning their elbows on it, and talking over its head.

“Very uncomfortable for the Dormouse,”

thought Alice, "only, as it is asleep, I suppose it doesn't mind."

(b) So Cinderella's two sisters called her to them and said, "Now, comb our hair, brush our shoes, and tie our sashes for us, for we are going to dance at the King's feast."

(c) There was once a young man in the army. He behaved bravely, and was always the first to face the bullets. While the war lasted, all went well with him, but when peace was made he received his discharge, and his captain told him to go about his business. His parents were dead; he had no home; so he asked his brothers to take him in until war should begin again, but they had hard hearts, and said they could do nothing for him. So the poor fellow shouldered his gun and went forth.

He came into a great open region, where he sat down and thought gloomily of his fate. "I have no money," thought he; "I have never learned any trade but war; I am not fit for anything."

Just then he heard a noise, and, looking up, he beheld a stranger before him.

"I know what you want," said the stranger; "it is money. You shall have as much as you want if you are not afraid. I give nought to cowards."

(d) No one ever knows what will happen to him.

(e) Her duty is with her mother.

Exercise

(a) From a selected column on the front page of this morning's newspaper, pick out all the personal pronouns and tell how they are used in the sentences.

(b) Write a paragraph giving your opinion on the subject, "What Athletics Do for Our School," or on some other subject particularly interesting to you. Go over the paragraph to see what work the personal pronoun has done for you.

(c) Select the personal pronouns:

"Where are you going, young fellow, my Lad,
On this glittering morn of May?"

"I'm going to join the colors, Dad;
They're looking for men, they say."

"But you're only a boy, young fellow, my Lad;
You aren't obliged to go."

"I'm seventeen and a quarter, Dad,
And ever so strong, you know."

From "Young Fellow, My Lad" in "Rhymes of a Red Cross Man," by Robert W. Service. Permission Barse and Hopkins.

• (d) Select the personal pronouns. (This verse was written under the painting of a magnificent trout.)

"This noble old trout from his hole ventured out
Something more of this wide world to see;
The news got about, and the boys snaked him out,
And brought him, a subject for me."

54. The Compound Personal Pronoun. The compound personal pronoun is formed by adding *self* to the forms of the personal pronoun. The compound

personal pronouns are: *myself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, in the singular; and *ourselves*, *yourselves* and *themselves* in the plural.

A compound personal pronoun may be used as an appositive for emphasis. Examples:

Mary *herself* told me.

I shall attend to this matter *myself*.

He *himself* telephoned.

Do not use the compound personal pronoun as the subject of a sentence:

Wrong: Yourself and your wife are the ones who were chosen.

Right: You and your wife are the ones who were chosen.

A compound personal pronoun may be used as direct object of a verb or may be governed by a preposition. These uses are incorrect unless in each case the pronoun names the same person or thing as the subject of the sentence.

Wrong: James and myself went to college.

Right: James and I went to college.

Wrong: The governor summoned Simmons and myself.

Right: The governor summoned Simmons and me.

Right: I blamed myself.

Right: The prisoner convicted himself.

Exercise

The compound personal pronouns in the following sentences are correctly used. Point out in each case whether the pronoun is used as an appositive, or as the object of a verb, or whether it is governed by a preposition.

1. We shall have to help ourselves out of this difficulty.
2. No one but the conductor himself realized the danger.
3. They have placed themselves in an unfortunate position.
4. We divided ourselves into two sections.
5. I myself saw the accident.
6. John addressed the letter to himself.

Exercise

Correct the misuse of the compound personal pronouns in the following sentences:

1. Ruth and myself organized the Girl Scouts.
2. Harry went to the theater with my father and myself.
3. The messenger handed telegrams to both Merritt and myself.
4. The Bennetts and ourselves went on a picnic.
5. Edward and myself fell into the trap.

There are no such words as *hisself* or *theirselves*.

Wrong: John took the message *hisself*.

Right: John took the message *himself*.

Wrong: They named *theirselves* the Community Club.

Right: They named *themselves* the Community Club.

55. The relative pronoun.

(a) Mr. Jones is the man who built our house.

Who in this sentence stands for the noun *man*.

Who, then, is a pronoun.

(b) He brought me a plan which I followed.

Which in this sentence stands for the noun *plan*.

Which, then, is a pronoun.

(c) This house is the house that Jack built.

That stands for the noun *house* in this sentence.

That, then, is a pronoun.

(d) He that endureth to the end shall be saved.

That stands for *he*, which is taking the place of the subject noun in this sentence. *That*, then, is a pronoun.

Like the personal pronouns, the pronouns in the sentences above stand for nouns. For instance, in (a) *who* is the subject of *built*; in (d) *that* is the subject of *endureth*. Unlike the personal pronouns, they go a step further, and perform in addition to what you have already seen, a duty which no other pronoun can perform. This duty is that of connecting clauses. Examine these sentences closely. You find that each of them falls readily into a principal and a subordinate clause. For instance:

Principal clause: Mr. Jones is the man.

Subordinate clause: Who built our house.

Who stands for its antecedent *man*. The subordinate clause is saying something about *man*. *Who*

connects the clauses because it stands for the very word concerning which the subordinate clause is saying something. The relationship between two such clauses is very close. *Who* is the word that shows the connection between the two clauses.

If you separate sentences (b), (c), and (d) into clauses, you will come to the conclusion that *which* and *that* are also pronouns that show connection between clauses. Such pronouns as these are called *relative*.

A *relative* pronoun always occurs in a subordinate clause and connects the subordinate clause with the principal clause.

56. Agreement. A relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender and number. This is a simple matter, for *that* and *which* never change their form, for any case or number; and *who*, although it has three forms for the three different cases, has no inflection for number. The forms of *who* are:

SINGULAR AND PLURAL

Nominative, who

Possessive, whose

Objective, whom

The relative pronouns *who* and *whom* refer only to people; the possessive *whose* refers to both people and things; *which* refers only to things; *that* may refer to either persons or things.

Clauses containing relative pronouns are said to be *introduced* by relative pronouns and are called relative clauses.

Exercise

Select the relative pronouns in the following sentences. Tell the clauses connected, and name the duty that the relative performs in the sentence.

1. Charles is a child who never cries.
2. Mary is the girl who took my picture.
3. Laziness is a thief who is never caught.
4. Ichabod Crane, who was tall and lank, looked like
a scarecrow,
5. The man whose hat I crushed was angry.
6. You may invite whom you wish.
7. The ticket-seller, whose temper had been tried to
its utmost, was rude to his patrons.
8. He is a man whom we all respect.
9. His daughter, whom he loved dearly, was taken
from him.
10. The girl whose arm was broken was taken to the
hospital.
11. Whom the Lord loveth, He chasteneth.
12. The girl whom I recommended to you proved to be
unworthy.
13. This man, whom I know well, has been wrongly
accused.
14. I shall send you to any one whom I know well.
15. Mr. Smith is the gentleman from whom I received
the letter.

(NOTE.—In sentences like 6 and 11, the antecedent of the relative is merely unexpressed. What the sentence really gives your mind, in 11, is "Those, or those people, whom the Lord loveth, He chasteneth.")

Exercise

From the forms in each set of brackets select the proper one to place in the sentence.

1. I secured a man [who, whom] I could depend upon.

2. There was some attempt at applause by people [which, who] were scattered through the audience.

3. Alice found herself lying with her head in the lap of her sister [which, who] was frantically calling to a man [which, who] was plowing in a field some little distance away.

4. The man addressed the servant [who, which] only bowed and smiled in reply.

5. They wished to find a girl [who, whom] they could send.

6. This is the soldier to [whom, who] the general gave a medal for bravery.

7. At the end of the passage Roddy met a man [whom, who] he knew.

8. Sometimes a man gathers together several characters of [which, whom] he makes a single novel.

9. She works for those [whom, who] are in need.

10. She was the beautiful lady [who, that] lived in the big house.

11. The man for [who, whom] I work is just.

12. I employed one [whom, who] I knew well.

Other relative pronouns are *as* and *what*. Examples:

(a) He gave the prize to such *as* deserved it.

(b) *What* I have said I shall maintain.

57. Compound Relative Pronouns. The compound relative pronouns are formed by adding *ever* or *soever* to the forms of the relative. They are *whoever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, *whosoever*, etc.

Whosoever is inflected thus:

Nominative, whosoever (whoever)

Possessive, whosesoever

Objective, whomsoever (whomever)

Take care to use the proper case of *whoever* or *whosoever*. The case will depend on the work that the word is doing.

Wrong: I shall ask *whoever* I please.

Right: I shall ask *whomever* I please.

Wrong: She spoke to *whomever* was passing.

Right: She spoke to *whoever* was passing.

58. Interrogative Pronouns

Who wants me?

Which of these books is mine?

What did you ask for?

The words *who*, *which*, and *what* in the sentences given above are used to ask questions. These pronouns are therefore called interrogative pronouns.

An *interrogative* pronoun is a pronoun used in asking questions.

The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *which*, and *what*. *Who* is inflected:

Nominative, who

Possessive, whose

Objective, whom

Who refers to persons; *which* refers to persons and things; *what* refers to things.

Examples of the use of these pronouns follow:

1. *Who* is there?
2. *Whom* do you want?
3. *Whose* fault was this?
4. *Which* of you will volunteer?
5. *What* do you want?
6. *Whom* am I addressing?
7. *Which* of you hath done this?

Care must be taken to use the proper case of the interrogative pronoun *who*. You have often been asked over the telephone, "Who am I talking to?" What should the person have said?

Fill the blanks in the following sentences correctly:

1. — did you want? (whom, who)
2. — am I speaking to, please? (who, whom)
3. — did you take the key from? (who, whom)
4. — did you ask to help us? (who, whom)

59. Other Pronouns. *Each, some, any, both, many, this, that* and several other words are used as pronouns. In the examples that follow you will observe that each of these words does the work of a noun.

1. *Each* should be provided with a day's rations.
2. *Some* like candy; *some* do not.
3. *Both* pleaded for a postponement of the trial.
4. *Any* of these questions may be chosen.
5. *Many* cried aloud in their anguish.
6. *Several* turned and ran.
7. *Few* of us realize the importance of details.
8. I shall buy none of that material, but shall take a yard of *this*.

VI. THE PARTS OF SPEECH—The Adjective

60. What an adjective is.

(a) Mary is a cautious girl.

In the sentence given above, *cautious* tells the kind of girl *Mary* is. *Cautious* adds something to our idea of *girl*. *Cautious*, then, is more closely connected with the word *girl* than with any other word in the sentence. What part of speech is *girl*?

(b) We rowed across the quiet pond.

Quiet adds something to our idea of *pond*. Then *quiet* is more closely connected with the word *pond* than with any other word in the sentence. What part of speech is *pond*?

(c) This man is an orator.

This tells which man is an orator. *This* is more closely connected with *man* than with any other word in the sentence. What part of speech is *man*?

(d) Six mice ran across the floor.

Six is more closely connected with *mice* than with any other word in the sentence. What part of speech is *mice*?

To sum up your conclusions about *cautious*, *quiet*, *this*, and *six*, note that:

These words are all alike in that they are closely connected with nouns. They are all alike in that

each changes the meaning of the noun with which it is connected. *Cautious* changes your idea of *Mary*; *quiet* adds to your idea of *pond*; *this* tells what particular man is an orator, or limits the predicate, *is an orator*, to *this* man; *six* shows that not all the mice in the world ran across the floor—only six ran. There is a whole group of words which performs this duty of changing or limiting the meaning of nouns and pronouns, and this group of words is known as another part of speech. The name given to this part of speech is *adjective*.

An adjective is a word that changes or limits the meaning of a noun or pronoun.

61. A word or group of words which changes or limits the meaning of another word is called a *modifier*.

Exercise

Point out the words in the following sentences that modify nouns or pronouns:

1. The bleak day made me shiver.
2. The glittering ring fascinated me.
3. She wore a checked shirtwaist.
4. Please use red ink.
5. "David Copperfield" is my favorite book.
6. Sunshiny days are often happy ones.
7. Polish the brass handle on the front door.
8. Careful enunciation is one of the first steps toward polished speech.
9. A big, fuzzy muff lay on the oak table.
10. There was a hot fire in the stove.

11. Red-headed people are said to have fiery tempers and warm hearts.

12. An industrious servant was sweeping the wide walks.

13. Tom bought a self-loading pistol.

62. Adjectives that do not describe.¹

The adjectives *this* and *that* have the plurals *these* and *those* respectively. These plurals are of course used to modify plural nouns.

There is a group of adjectives which changes the meaning of nouns by telling *how many*. These adjectives are numbers *one, two, three*, and so on. An example of the use of this sort of adjective was given in the sentence, *Six mice ran across the floor*.

Somewhat like this group is another consisting of adjectives which tell the order or numerical rank of the noun modified. These adjectives are *first, second, third, fourth*, and so on. Example:

Take your arithmetic lesson in the second hour, not in the first hour.

Another group of adjectives consists of *each, both, several, this, that, many, few, any, such, what, which*, and some others. You learned in section 53 that such words are sometimes used as pronouns. The part of speech of the word is determined by the work that the word does in the sentence. When these words do the work of pronouns, they are pronouns. When they do the work of adjectives, they are adjectives.

¹Various special names, such as *demonstrative, quantitative, indefinite, distributive*, etc., are sometimes given to these adjectives. These classifications serve no purpose in oral or written composition.

Exercise

Point out the adjectives in the following sentences and tell the word each modifies:

1. Some people have already arrived for our party.
2. Will those girls who sold tickets please turn in the money?
3. Many soldiers passed through the town.
4. He gave alms to all deserving people.
5. No reason you can give will satisfy me.
6. You may give help to any girl who asks for it.
7. Several mischievous boys made this trouble.
8. Will each student pay his dues at once?
9. A note of excuse will be required of every girl.
10. Her fears caused me many anxious hours.
11. What book have you?
12. Which girl do you mean?
13. Yonder hills were the inspiration of his youth.
14. The general expects each soldier to obey him instantly.
15. Some people lead virtuous lives.

63. The articles. Under the heading of adjectives come the words *the*, *a*, and *an*. These words are called *articles*. *The* is the *definite* article, simply because it points out more definitely the thing mentioned than *a* or *an*. *A* and *an* are called *indefinite* articles. *A* is used before words beginning with a consonant; *an* before words beginning with a vowel. The articles differ from adjectives in general in the colorlessness of their duty; but if you wish to realize how much the articles help to make our language clear and definite, read a paragraph from any magazine,

omitting all the articles. You will then see that though these little words seem to be useless, they are actually doing much work.

Articles are not inflected, but *a* and *an* are used only before singular nouns; *the* is used before both singular and plural nouns.

Be careful to use the definite article and the indefinite article to show whether nouns or adjectives are to be taken separately or together. Examples:

I see a blue and green card. (*One card.*)

I see a blue and a green card. (*Two cards.*)

I saw the president and manager of the company. (*One man.*)

I saw the president and the manager of the company. (*Two men.*)

64. The predicate adjective.

My new coat is blue.

The adjectives in this sentence are *new* and *blue*, for both these words change the idea of *coat*. *New* modifies *coat*; *blue* modifies *coat* also. Is there any difference between the way in which *blue* modifies *coat* and the way in which *new* modifies *coat*? Certainly as far as the duty of the adjective is concerned, *new* and *blue* hold exactly the same relationship toward *coat*. But there is a difference in the location of the two adjectives. *New* occupies the usual position of the adjective, but *blue* is found in the *predicate* of the sentence. Moreover, *new* could be omitted from the sentence without much sacrifice, but if *blue* were omitted, the sentence would lack sense. *Blue*, then,

is here an adjective doing actual work in the predicate and yet modifying the subject of the sentence. *Blue* is here said to be a *predicate adjective*. Remember that position alone never determines a grammatical function. The *work* the word does determines its grammatical classification.

A *predicate adjective* is found in the predicate and modifies the subject.

In the sentence, *He stood there, tall and strong*, two adjectives are placed at the end for emphasis only. Note that the predicate adjective has to serve as a completing term, a duty which neither *tall* nor *strong* performs.

Exercise

Select the predicate adjectives from these sentences.

1. In debate Johnson was persuasive and winning.
2. The number of rooms at our disposal is limited.
3. The dessert was particularly good.
4. We were both hopeful.
5. The knock was feeble, but we all heard it.
6. Lorna was unconscious.
7. Old Meehan was quiet, but he was the best-informed of us all.
8. The warriors were grave and reverent.
9. The way was steep and dangerous.
10. The full moon was bright behind me.

65. Comparison of adjectives.

Adjectives undergo a certain change of form to express comparison. For instance, if you spoke of

two pieces of string of unequal lengths, you might say, "This piece is *shorter* than that;" or, "That piece is *longer* than this." But if you had three pieces of string, of unequal lengths, you might say, "This piece is the *shortest*;" or, "That piece is the *longest*." There are then three steps you can take in comparing adjectives. You can say, "This string is short," meaning that, compared to strings in general, this string is short; you can say, of two unequally long strings, "This string is shorter than that;" you can say of three or more unequally long strings, "This string is shortest." These three steps are called the *degrees* of comparison. Each of these degrees is given a name. *Short* is the *positive* degree of the adjective; *shorter* is the *comparative* degree; *shortest* is the *superlative* degree.

Compare by this method these adjectives: *high*, *deep*, *wide*, *tall*, *thin*, *dry*.

To *compare* adjectives, add *er* to the positive to form the comparative degree; add *est* to the positive to form the superlative degree.

Most adjectives of one syllable are compared in this way. Adjectives of more than one syllable are compared in this way only when the extra syllables *er* and *est* harmonize well with the entire word. For instance, here is a case that goes well: *common*, *commoner*, *commonest*. On the other hand, *dangerous*, *dangerouser*, *dangerousest* is plainly impossible. In such cases adjectives are compared by placing *more* or *less* before the positive form to make the compara-

tive degree, and *most* or *least* before the positive form to make the superlative degree. For example:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>		<i>Superlative</i>	
	more		most	
dangerous	or	dangerous	or	dangerous
	less		least	

Compare in this manner each of the following adjectives: *famous, inexperienced, fruitful, wholesome, barren, fertile.*

66. Irregular comparison. Some adjectives are compared irregularly; that is, not in accordance with either of the methods just defined. The comparison of these adjectives has to be memorized.

They are:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
good	better	best
little	less	least
bad	worse	worst
or		
ill		
old	{ elder	eldest
	{ older	oldest
many	more	most
or		
much		
near	{ near	next
	{ or	or
	{ nearer	nearest

67. Adjectives that are not compared. Some adjectives have such meanings that they cannot be compared. For instance, *this, that, which, fourteen, universal, unanimous*, are not compared because no comparative or superlative degrees are possible.

Exercise

In the following sentences compare the adjectives which can be compared:

1. There is business of high importance here.
2. Nine of the men were badly hurt.
3. Is this news true?
4. On the wharf were a scythe and three spades.
5. The whole style of the launch was different.
6. There was something in the tone of this note which gave me great uneasiness.
7. I feared that some serious disaster had befallen my friend.
8. The prudent thing to do is always the thing Harry chooses.
9. A sulky boy sat in the outer office waiting for the principal.
10. The servants gave their returned master a most cordial welcome.
11. Poe was the first American short-story writer.
12. Near the western extremity are some miserable frame buildings.
13. Such explanations were interesting.
14. Legrand had once been wealthy.
15. In the first place, this way out of the difficulty is uncertain; and in the second place, it is not dignified.
16. The island was a singular one.
17. This puzzle is the queerest one that I ever saw.

18. Willie's good-conduct badge was restored to his arm at once.

19. Any pattern will do.

20. His chief interest lies in the draughting of plans for airplanes.

21. The riderless pony brought the news.

22. The tired company could go no further.

23. Another man joined the conference.

24. The dismissed servant told tales of his former employer.

68. Which 'degree to use. Use the comparative degree when you are speaking of two objects or persons. Use the superlative degree when you speak of more than two objects or persons; as:

(a) He is the taller of the two.

(b) He is the more scholarly of the two.

(c) He is the less tiresome of the two.

(d) Helen of Troy was the loveliest of all women.

(e) This is the most tuneful harp I ever heard.

Correct the following sentences:

1. The largest is the prettiest of the two hats.

2. Of the two paths, this one is the steepest.

3. The eldest of the two boys has been hurt.

4. It was difficult for the commander to decide which was the bravest of the two soldiers.

5. When you come to the two doors, open the nearest one, and call the oldest of the two children.

6. "Tom Sawyer" and "Huckleberry Finn" were our birthday gifts. I think "Huckleberry Finn" the funniest of the two books.

7. Mary is the prettiest of the two girls.
8. Each of the two boys has a good disposition, but John's is really the best.

Exercise

Select all the adjectives in these sentences. Tell what work they do.

1. Clear and deep his voice went on.
2. The familiar lines of the old hymn rang in his head.
3. My hands were numb with cold.
4. Few people recognized the bent figure.
5. Mark finished the few remaining stalks and put them in a neat row.
6. I could not come to you with empty hands.
7. Lyons, plain-spoken and honest, was the first one on his feet; Smith, a violent, uncontrolled fellow, followed.
8. With a jolly laugh, Sally picked up the corn-cutter.
9. Matthew was still excited over his recent adventure.
10. The returning company crossed the open, high-fenced fields.
11. Deb had made a mysterious discovery which he related with much secrecy.
12. Jane listened with keen interest.
13. You made a favorable impression on him on that day.
14. Yale is a sure winner in to-day's game.
15. We took the third row to do together.
16. He has unquestioned courage.
17. This is a curious coincidence.
18. Max drew a deep breath of relief.
19. Fleming's calm, sensible words took an immense weight off my mind.
20. Arthur could give his suspicions no definite form.

NOTE.—Another use of the adjective is that called the attributive complement. This use presents no functional difficulty and can be omitted. Example: They painted the house red.

VII. THE PARTS OF SPEECH—The Adverb

69. What an adverb is.

John ran swiftly.

How did John run? *Swiftly*. *Swiftly* modifies the verb *ran*. [See Section 61.]

John has gone somewhere.

Where has John gone? *Somewhere*. *Somewhere* modifies the verb *has gone*.

John came early.

When did John come? *Early*. *Early* modifies the verb *came*.

Mother is too easy with Letty.

To what degree is mother easy? *Too* tells the degree to which mother is easy. *Too* modifies *easy*.

Here is a group of words which does the work of telling *how*, *when*, *where*, or *to what degree* about the word modified. From the sentences above you judge that words which do this kind of work may modify both verbs and adjectives. The greater number of these words, however, modify verbs, and consequently they have a name which suggests their close relationship to verbs. The name is *adverb*, which means *close-to-the-verb*. This closeness is of

course the closeness of relationship, not always of actual position.

Thank you, John, very kindly.

To what degree of *kindly* was John thanked?

Very modifies *kindly*. *Kindly* itself, however, is an adverb. You conclude then that an adverb may modify another adverb, as well as a verb or an adjective.

An *adverb* is a word which modifies a verb, adjective, or another adverb. It may tell how, when, where, to what degree, etc.

Adverbs are formed in many cases by adding *ly* to adjectives. Examples: *Clearly, merrily, gayly, loudly*. But there are adverbs which do not have this common ending. Examples: *ill, often, beyond, enough, upward, afterward, down, hard, hence, along, why, how, when*, and so on.

Do not forget that certain adjectives end in *ly*, like *lovely, mannerly*, and others. Always look carefully to see what work the word is doing.

Exercise

Select the adverb. Tell the part of speech of each word modified.

1. The fire burned steadily.
2. He turned his head sharply.
3. Aston answered abruptly.
4. Aymer felt supremely content.
5. She considered the matter gravely.
6. The trouble finally blew over.

7. Rennie shook her head disapprovingly.
8. The students were uproariously gay.
9. I counted the money most carefully.
10. Ned was furiously angry.
11. He tried honestly to do his work.
12. Is he here already?
13. The prisoner reluctantly admitted his guilt.
14. The child listened attentively.
15. The money was hopelessly lost.
16. Jack was not fair because he was too angry.
17. The boy related his triumph gleefully.
18. Ed was strictly truthful.
19. Luckily it was a light whip, but it cut sharply.
20. He walked slowly down the grass path.

70. Idiomatic adverbs. There is a group of adverbs which do not belong to any of the time-place-manner-degree divisions. Some of them are: *perhaps*, which suggests possibility; *surely* and *certainly*, which may imply certainty or may merely be polite assenting words; *therefore*, which is often thrown in to gather the reader's thoughts up into definite form before he goes any further; *indeed*, which is another word of assent or emphasis; *not*, which is a negative; *yes* and *no*, which are merely response-words.

Sentences containing these adverbs follow:

1. Perhaps I shall come, but don't wait for me.
2. His performance is surely a wonderful feat.
3. I will surely be there.
4. Certainly, I shall help you with pleasure.
5. This audience is certainly the smallest one I ever saw.
6. You can see, therefore, that I was in a dangerous position.

7. Yes, indeed, I shall invite you all.

8. It is not my affair.

71. Adverbial use of the noun.

We walked three miles.¹

Miles in this sentence tells how far we walked. *Mile* is a word you have met before as a noun. Here it is doing the work of an adverb; hence it is here an adverb. It is called the *adverbial* noun. It modifies the verb just as any adverb does, but as a noun, it may itself be modified by an adjective.

72. Adjectives incorrectly used for adverbs.

Adjectives and adverbs do different work. Do not use an adjective where you should use an adverb.

Wrong: This sure is a difficult problem.

Right: This surely is a difficult problem.

Wrong: The minister spoke slow and emphatic.

Right: The minister spoke slowly and emphatically.

Exercise

Point out the mistakes in the following sentences:

1. I come to see you real often, don't I?
2. Why, I'm getting along pretty good, thank you.
3. Cut the fudge quick and it will be smooth.
4. Don't go so slow about your work.
5. Did you do your problems accurate?

¹The noun used in this manner should always be plural if the adjective preceding it is plural. Say *I caught a fish that weighed two pounds*, not *I caught a fish that weighed two pound*. A different way of expressing the idea is this: *I caught a two-pound fish*.

6. When John gets at it, he works good.
7. Leonard always does his tasks thorough.
8. He went as quick as he could.
9. The whippoorwill cried dismal in the twilight.
10. The boy drew himself lazy out of the pool.
11. I pray as earnest as I can.
12. Sally looked about her wild.
13. "Will you come to the meeting, Tom?"
"Sure, I'll come!" answered Tom.
14. They acted unladylike in the lunch room.

Exercise

Explain how to tell the difference between an adjective and an adverb.

In the following sentences, which words are adjectives, and which are adverbs? Tell the part of speech of the word modified.

1. The young man sat on the high stool, silent and embarrassed.
2. The scene was lovely.
3. The street was very narrow, very long, and very gloomy.
4. The child was extremely sensitive.
5. The man was not merely lonely; he was afraid.
6. The vision had not yet faded away.
7. Temple did not appear often.
8. Strangeways never came aboard.
9. He sent the letter too soon.
10. He was not one of those people that talk too much.
11. It was necessary that the lawyer accompany his client.
12. The quiet persistence of a London rain amazes every American.

13. I never saw you before.

14. The men were keenly aware of the mental comments of the servants.

15. Burgess still had business with me.

16. Then sounded a quiet knock.

17. Long and careful training came to Pearson's aid.

18. The boy's expression was a slightly puzzled one.

19. Tembarom was now entirely alone.

20. Mr. Leonard left by a very early train.

21. I have driven miles to overtake you.

22. They were all going somewhere in a big hurry.

23. Albert stood still and waited for the long minute to end.

24. He shook hands with them furiously and welcomed them as if he had not seen an American in years.

25. The footman stared with calm features, but curiously interested eyes.

26. The room had deep windows which looked out on lovely gardens.

27. John walked up and down excitedly.

28. He laughed the short, confident laugh again.

29. The man was enormously rich.

30. Everett walked confidently into the room.

31. Mr. Tarly rarely spoke, but when he did, he said something.

32. The paper was brought punctually every morning at seven o'clock.

33. The thing happened so unexpectedly that we were almost stunned by the shock.

34. How are you to-day, Mr. Doolittle?

35. I am fairly well, thank you.

73. Comparison of adverbs. Adverbs and adjectives are compared in the same way.

There are adverbs whose meaning does not permit them to be compared; for instance, *actually, really, presently, immediately, yet, once*.

Exercise

Compare:

gracefully	angrily	keenly	wearily
painfully	poorly	slowly	wildly

Exercise

Select the adverbs and tell their degrees.

1. My dear boy, things never run smoothly and easily at first.
2. The boy is mine now, and I shall do my duty by him most willingly.
3. He had never spoken more truthfully.
4. You have done less badly with your task than I.
5. Lily met me more shyly than her brother.
6. If you do your work satisfactorily, I shall not complain.
7. You speak more charitably than I.

Exercise

I. From a page of the book you are reading in your English class, select ten sentences containing adverbs. Make a list of the adverbs. Write sentences of your own, containing all of these adverbs.

II. Select the adverbs from the following paragraphs. Tell the part of speech of the words they modify.

- (a) The sun was coming up when Thundermouth suddenly turned his horse and came riding

slowly back. We soon met him and learned that he had lost the trail. He had not watched it carefully, for he believed it led directly to Bear River, and now he had passed the turn. We all retraced our steps. Finally we found that the trail crossed the creek and continued down the south side of it. Thundermouth took the lead again, and we went forward.

- (b) "When Sunday morning came," said Mr. Lincoln, "I did not know what to do. I told Mr. Washbourne I had nowhere to go, and he proposed to take me down to the Five Points Sunday School. I was very much interested in what I saw. Presently Mr. Pease came up and spoke to Mr. Washbourne, who introduced him to me. Then Mr. Washbourne, at Mr. Pease's request, spoke; then I was asked to speak. I told them I had always tried to do the very best I could even when I was so poor that my toes stuck out from my shoes in winter. I said that if they would do the best they could they would always get along somehow. I spoke very simply, and thought I had said nothing, but after I had finished some of the teachers came up and shook hands with me and said that that was just what those poor children needed so badly. Next morning I saw that my simple remarks had been noticed by the papers. The thing I remember best, though, is the songs those children sang. They sang earnestly and sweetly. I shall never forget it."

VIII. THE PHRASE

74. **What a phrase is.** In chapter four you learned that the preposition and the noun or pronoun which it governs, together make up the prepositional phrase. You thought, in studying chapter four, only of the two parts of the prepositional phrase, and not of the phrase *as a whole*. You need, however, to consider not only the relationship of the preposition to the noun or pronoun which it governs, but also the relationship of the phrase as a whole to the sentence.

A group of related words, without a subject and predicate, doing the work of a single part of speech, is called a *phrase*.

75. **The adverbial phrase.** When you are trying to decide the relationship which parts of the sentence bear to each other, you ask, "What work does this part of the sentence do?" To discover what work a phrase can do in a sentence, study this one:

The car crashed over the embankment.

The prepositional phrase *over the embankment* is attached, as a whole, to the word *crashed*, for the phrase makes fuller the idea expressed by the word *crashed*. Since the phrase changes the idea of the word *crashed*, it is said to modify the word *crashed*.

Crashed is a verb.

Words that modify verbs are adverbs.

The phrase *over the embankment* is here doing the work of an adverb. Therefore the phrase *over the embankment* is in this sentence an adverb, or, if you prefer, an adverbial phrase.

Exercise

Select the adverbial phrases from the following sentences. Remember that an adverbial phrase, like the adverb, may modify an adjective.

1. Did the poet impress you with his humor?
2. I rushed at once to the spot.
3. Never in my life did I hear such nonsense.
4. Please leave the book on my desk.
5. The play is given in the Adelphi theater.
6. The flowers were put into a slender vase.
7. Can you be here at eight o'clock?
8. To what extent was the book damaged?
9. For what crime was he arrested?
10. From my window I can see the laborers as they come from work.
11. Fill the bottles with ink.
12. Will you do this for me?
13. Such things never happen in the South.
14. Throughout the trial, the prisoner showed wonderful self-control.
15. The whistle could be heard for miles.
16. She is entirely dependent upon her brother.
17. What would be done in case of fire?
18. Will you throw my coat around my shoulders?
19. Meet me at the Union Station at seven o'clock.
20. I heard about your misfortune with sincere regret.

76. The adjective phrase. The phrase can do other

work than that of the adverb, as you will see by examining this sentence:

Ours is the house with the slate roof.

The phrase *with the slate roof* adds to, or changes the idea of the word *house*. The phrase *with the slate roof*, then, modifies the word *house*.

House is a noun.

A word which modifies a noun is an adjective. The phrase *with a slate roof* is here doing the work of an adjective. Therefore the phrase *with a slate roof* is an adjective phrase.

Exercise

Select the adjective phrases. Tell which noun is modified.

1. The justice of the charge appealed to him.
2. This was the work of her relatives, not of her friends.
3. The recollection of her long absence made her turn home.
4. We had now reached the summit of the loftiest crag.
5. The events of the day were very exciting.
6. Her past behavior was a source of vexation.
7. Elizabeth's father never restrained the gayety of his household.
8. The imprudence of Mrs. Brown's children was the subject of our conversation.
9. Anxiety on Mary's behalf was natural.
10. The development of Richard's character was the care of the minister.
11. The first week of their return was soon gone.

12. Where is the list of articles that you want?

13. A visit to Brighton meant every possibility of earthly happiness.

14. She was the object of admiring glances wherever she went.

15. She saw all the glories of the camp.

16. The day of departure arrived.

17. The owner of the house will be here to-day.

18. The end of the term is not far off.

19. To give a description of Derbyshire is not the object of this work.

20. This is the scene of the play.

21. The heat of the sun oppressed him.

Make up ten sentences employing adjectives or adjective phrases, or both. Use as material what you see as you look from a window of your home or of your school.

Exercise

1. Explain how to tell the difference between an adjective phrase and an adverbial phrase.

2. Which phrases are adjective phrases, and which are adverbial phrases in the following sentences? Tell the work that each phrase does; that is, what word it modifies.

1. The waves beat heavily against the pier.

2. With keen eyes he watched the horses as they trotted down the hill.

3. There was a wide strip of turf on each side of the road.

4. It was a lonely stretch of marsh land.

5. The faint, sharp click of hoofs swept up the road to the boy.

6. The lonely figure was visible to the travelers.

7. The owner of the mill stood with one hand on the boy's shoulder.

8. The elderly gentleman cast a glance of inquiry from the boy to his companion.

9. The fields were green with grass.

10. He was one of the best motorists in England.

11. They came to a standstill before the door of the grand mansion.

12. They pointed out the advantages of a country life.

13. Mr. Mass was a stout man of hasty temper.

14. Mr. Neville spent most of his time in London.

15. As they clattered through the narrow streets of the country town in the light of the July evening, Chris sat up and rubbed his eyes.

16. Every one was kind to the boy.

3. Write five sentences containing prepositional phrases. Tell what part of speech each phrase modifies and whether it is an adjective or an adverbial phrase.

IX. THE CLAUSE

You learned in section 10 that a **division of a sentence containing a subject and predicate is a clause**. You will recall that clauses are ranked as principal or subordinate according to the work they perform. Subordinate clauses can be classified still further in accordance with the definite duty that they are doing in the sentence.

77. The adverbial clause. In the sentence,

Put your wraps where they belong,

the clause *where they belong* modifies the verb *put*. This subordinate clause, then, is doing the work of an adverb. An adverbial clause is always introduced by a word which shows the subordinate position of the clause in the sentence.

A clause that does the work of an adverb is an *adverbial* clause.

Exercise

From the following sentences select the adverbial clauses. Tell what they modify.

1. I shall wait until George comes.
2. I will try not to move when the flash-light is taken.
3. When Caesar cried I wept.
4. He longed to go where there is opportunity for all

men.

5. We watched the patients while the nurses rested.
6. He went whence he had come.
7. Did the detective come before you left home?
8. Shall we play chess after we have had dinner?
9. I have never spoken about it since she asked me not to.
10. I shall join you as soon as I can.
11. I shall never do that again as long as I live.
12. Make hay while the sun shines.
13. When I arrived at the Terminal, it was just noon.
14. While I ate my luncheon I thought of the afternoon plans.
15. Do not come unless I send for you.
16. I shall not care if I never come back.
17. He does as he pleases.
18. Since the proof is here, I must believe.

78. The adjective clause.

Boys who pass the examinations are promoted.

You have learned to call the group of words *who pass the examinations* a clause. This clause changes your idea of *boys* by adding to that idea the fact that only the boys *who pass the examinations* are promoted.

The clause *who pass the examinations* modifies *boys*.

Boys is a noun. The word which modifies a noun is called an adjective. The clause is here doing the work of an adjective.

A clause that does the work of an adjective is an adjective clause.

Note that adjective clauses are subordinate and are usually introduced by the relative pronoun. This pronoun refers to its antecedent in the principal clause, and accomplishes the work of connecting the adjective clause with the word that it modifies in the principal clause. Adjective clauses are sometimes called relative clauses.

NOTE.—The words *where* and *when* frequently introduce adjective clauses; as, the place *where I was born*, the hour *when he promised to come*. In such cases *where* is equivalent to *in which* and, *when* to *at which*.

Exercises

Select from the following sentences the adjective clauses. In each case tell what noun is modified.

1. The housekeeper, who was a respectable, elderly-looking woman, showed them about.
2. This scholarship was the reward which she expected.
3. I, who am your general, command you.
4. I have lost the book which you left for me.
5. The list which you want will be here to-morrow.
6. He who laughs last laughs best.
7. The student who was suspended yesterday was an old offender.
8. Lightning struck the tree under which we were standing.
9. I was unable to reach the place where you promised to meet me.
10. She had never seen a place for which natural beauty had done more.
11. There are very few people of whom so much can be said.
12. The time has come when every man must help.
13. Caesar, who was a great Roman emperor, wrote an account of his conquests.

Tell whether the word, phrase, and clause modifiers in the following sentences are doing the work of adverbs or of adjectives:

1. A look of impatient despair spread over Rita's face.
2. He had found a shelter for his child.
3. I found the book where I had left it.
4. They lingered in Europe for weeks after the war broke out.
5. His method of questioning was very direct.
6. Ramona was always ready with a smile when he spoke to her.
7. Martin was far too much in sympathy with the criminal.
8. There was no apparent change in the sick man's condition.
9. No one suspected the depth of little Ned's affection for the puppy until, one day, the street car ran over the unlucky dog.
10. Philip had too many cares on his mind.
11. The time when you could change your mind has passed.

79. The noun clause.

That he overheard me is unfortunate.

The clause *that he overheard me* is here acting as the subject of *is*. The clause is doing the work of a noun.

A clause that does the work of a noun is a *noun* clause.

Noun clauses, are, of course, subordinate.

Other examples of the noun clause:

The fact is *that he can not afford a car* (predicate nominative).

I knew *that the man was unjustly accused* (object of verb).

I had no reason for refusing the position except *that it required me to leave home* (governed by a preposition).

I learned the lesson *that I could not trifle with a loaded gun* (used in apposition).

Exercise

Select the noun clause from each of the following sentences. Tell how each is used.

1. The report that Ned had been injured was untrue.
2. I did not know that I had fallen until I regained consciousness.
3. I believe that the man is sincere.
4. I saw that the runner's endurance could not last.
5. I had no idea of where the passage would lead me.
6. Tell me what you think about this.
7. I have no remembrance of where we went or what we did.
8. I can not forget that in my need you stood beside me.
9. You must learn to distinguish between what is right and what is wrong.
10. That the book is entertaining no one could deny.
11. When he will arrive remains to be seen.
12. The agent said nothing about the book except that it was entertaining.

Exercise

Tell whether the clauses in the following sentences are doing the work of nouns, adjectives, or adverbs:

1. I found that I had made a bad mistake.
2. After I had inquired the way, I remembered that father had given me written directions.
3. Often poor Ceres encountered fauns, who looked like sunburnt country people, except that they had hairy ears.
4. There was to be no talking while the classes passed.
5. Although every precaution for our safety was taken, the robbers overtook us and plundered our baggage.
6. The young man said that his heart would not fail him, and that he would bring back the Golden Fleece.
7. When the count withdrew from the king's presence, an officer followed him from the room.
8. The little girl listened attentively to every word that was said.
9. We had a glimpse of Mother Ceres, half hidden amid the waving grain, while the four black steeds were whirling along the chariot in which her loved daughter was borne away.
10. I shall be very lonely while you are away.
11. The children sat down on the sand, where the surf broke over them, and busied themselves making a necklace, which they hung about Marion's neck.
12. What they say does not matter.
13. It is true that I sent for the ambulance.
14. Unless I am mistaken, this plan was yours.
15. He had to cross a field where daffodils were thick.
16. You must have known that I would come to the house when you sent for me.
17. No one believes that a soldier's life is easy.

X. THE PARTS OF SPEECH—The Conjunction and the Interjection

80. What the conjunction is.

- (a) He called and I came.
- (b) He called but I did not come.
- (c) You must obey the law or take the consequences.
- (d) Mary and I sang.
- (e) We went over the bridge and through the gate.

Notice the connecting nature of such words as *and*, *but*, and *or* in the sentences given above. These words which have for their duty the connecting of words, phrases, and clauses are called conjunctions. *Con* means together, and *junct* means join.

A *conjunction* is a word which connects words, phrases, or clauses.

81. The *coördinating conjunction*. In the sentences above, notice that in every case the words, phrases, or clauses connected by *and*, *but*, or *or* are doing the same kind of work. For instance, in (a), (b), and (c) the clauses are both independent; in (d) *Mary* and *I* are both acting as subjects of *sang*; in (e), *over the bridge* and *through the gate* are adverbial phrases of the same rank.

Conjunctions that connect words, phrases, or

clauses of equal rank are called *coördinating conjunctions*. *Coördinating* means putting in the same rank.

Coördinating conjunctions are of two kinds: pure conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs.¹

82. Pure Conjunctions. Pure conjunctions serve to connect words, phrases, or clauses; conjunctive adverbs serve to connect only clauses.

The chief pure conjunctions² are:

and	or
but	nor

And is sometimes linked with *both*; *either* with *or*; and *neither* with *nor*.

Examples of pure conjunctions used to connect clauses:

1. Come here *and* I will help you.
2. He said he would come, *but* I do not believe him.
3. They must trust their leader *or* they will lose.
4. *Either* he is wrong, *or* I am.
5. He is not wrong, *nor* am I.

Examples of pure conjunctions used to connect phrases:

1. Mary owed money to the baker *and* to the ice-man.
2. You owe an apology, not to father, *but* to me.

¹ This classification of conjunctions is based on the actual work done by the conjunction. We have purposely avoided the old grouping which recognized kinship between the conjunctive adverb and certain of the subordinating conjunctions. The classification here given is logical; it throws light upon the question of punctuation; it is simple. See Wooley's *Mechanics of Writing*, pp. 364, 132, 133.

² *For* is usually classed as a coördinating conjunction. Its meaning is generally equivalent to *because*; in such cases it is logically subordinate. The connection is sometimes so loose as to justify the classification of *for* as a coördinate conjunction.

Examples of pure conjunctions used to connect words:

1. They gave the class numerals in honor of high athletic standing to Harris *and* Loomis.
2. The paying teller *or* the cashier will attend to your wants.
3. He wants *neither* you *nor* me.

Exercise

Point out the pure conjunctions in the following sentences. Tell whether they connect words, phrases, or clauses.

1. Harding sacrificed, and Cummings was caught at third base.
2. I never buy magazines, but I shall make an exception to my rule this time.
3. You may take the parcel, or leave it to be delivered.
4. There are two expresses to New York this morning—one at ten, and one at eleven o'clock.
5. Neither the salesman in the book store nor the proprietor had heard of the volume he wanted.
6. Either you or your father must pay the bill.
7. She resembles both her father and her mother.
8. "Neither you nor James may go," said mother.
9. Both play and study are necessary.
10. He knew that he must hurry or miss the train.

83. The Conjunctive Adverb. The chief conjunctive adverbs are:

so	moreover	yet
hence	accordingly	then
nevertheless	besides	still
however	thus	furthermore

Examples of the conjunctive adverb connecting the clauses of compound sentences are here given.

1. It was growing cold; so I put down the window.
2. She was incompetent; hence she lost her place.
3. The Boardwalk was crowded; nevertheless, I felt lonely.
4. I considered that he was taking too great a chance; however, since he insisted, I allowed him to go ahead.
5. Don has not the head for quarter-back; moreover, he is too light for this team.
6. The soldiers were told to be quiet; accordingly, they crept forward on their hands and knees and scarcely whispered.
7. That location is not fashionable; besides, it is inconvenient.
8. Tom started an expense account; thus he hoped to cut down unnecessary expenditures.
9. He is a good driver; yet I always feel nervous in his car.
10. I prefer not to take the risk; still, I shall have to.
11. He stared at me a full minute; then he turned and left me.

Note that the second clause of a compound sentence connected by *and* may be separated from the first clause by a comma. But the second clause of a compound sentence introduced by a conjunctive adverb may *not* be separated from the first clause by a comma; a clause in a compound sentence introduced by a conjunctive adverb must be separated from the preceding clause by a semicolon (;).

Pure conjunctions may be used only as conjunctions. Conjunctive adverbs may be used as plain

adverbs. Distinguish a word used as a conjunctive adverb from the same word used as a plain adverb as follows:

If the word directly modifies some verb, adjective, or other adverb in the clause, or sentence, it is a plain adverb. Example:

(a) He did it *otherwise*.

If the word does the connecting for the whole clause, it is a conjunctive adverb. Example:

(b) I had to promise; *otherwise* he would not have come.

Even if the second clause of (b) were written, as it might be, as a sentence by itself, *otherwise* would still be a conjunctive adverb, for it modifies the whole clause and not any single word in it.

You can substitute another adverb, *differently*, for instance, in (a). Try to substitute *differently* for *otherwise* in (b).

Exercise

Point out the coördinating conjunctions in the following sentences:

1. A shot shattered Wolfe's wrist, but he wrapped his handkerchief about it and pressed on. Another shot struck him, and he still pressed on, but when the third lodged, he fell mortally wounded.

2. Every sentence that he writes is homely, rugged, and strong.

3. It was a hard experience; still, I am glad I had it.

4. He had been traveling some days both by sea and by rail.

5. Did you spend your Easter vacation in the city or in the country?

6. The sky to the north and west was darkening.

7. It is his business; therefore, let him see to it.

8. I did the best I could; hence I feel no regrets.

9. Merton always does the right thing, but I do not want him to undertake this enterprise.

10. She knows better than that; therefore, she has no excuse for her failure.

Exercise

Indicate which words are used as conjunctive adverbs and which are used as plain adverbs in the following sentences:

1. He was tired; furthermore he had no gun.

2. She was quiet and obedient; still, I knew she was rebelling against every direction that was given to her.

3. They asked for a big man; accordingly Benson was sent.

4. I read the rules and acted accordingly.

5. I shall not get a winter hat yet.

6. They do not merit sympathy; yet I feel sorry for them.

84. Subordinating conjunctions.

(a) I shall come when I am ready.

(b) Mary will go if she is invited.

(c) Put the baseball bats where no one will find them.

In such sentences as those above you have noticed the connecting nature of the words, *when*, *if*, and *where*. They differ, however, from the conjunctions you have just studied, in that they introduce subordinate clauses. As you learned in section 12, a subordinate clause is one which is dependent upon some independent clause.

Conjunctions which connect subordinate clauses with independent clauses are called *subordinating conjunctions*. *Subordinating* means putting in a lower rank. You have already seen the subordinating conjunction at work introducing adverbial and adjective clauses. See note on adjective clause, page 107.

The chief subordinating conjunctions are:

when	though	that	since
where	whether	because	while
if	lest	than	provided
although	unless	as	after

Exercise

Point out the subordinating conjunctions in the following sentences:

1. I would go if I thought that I could do any good.
2. After I had finished with him, he was a humbled youngster.
3. There has never been any trouble since we hired Jordan.
4. You watch the office while I eat my luncheon, please.
5. I shall tie this string on your finger, lest you forget.
6. I shall not go ahead unless you will share the responsibility.

7. I told him that I could not go.
8. You endured the strain longer than I did.
9. Will you find out whether or not Mr. King has come in, please?
10. Put this where it will be safe.
11. I will go, although I think the whole thing useless.
12. He waited because he was afraid.
13. There is no peace where there is noise.
14. Write early if you wish immediate attention.

Distinguish between the subordinating conjunction and the same word used as a plain adverb. The conjunction connects; the plain adverb directly modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb.

Subordinating conjunction: I will go *where* you go.

Plain adverb: *Where* are you going?

Subordinating conjunction: I discharged him, *since* you wished it.

Plain adverb: He went away, and I have never heard of him *since*.

There are, to sum up, two classes of conjunctions:

1. Coördinating:
 - (a) Pure conjunctions.
 - (b) Conjunctive adverbs.
2. Subordinating.

Exercise

Tell which conjunctions in the following sentences are coördinating, and which are subordinating. Ask yourself: *Does the conjunction connect clauses of equal rank or of unequal rank?*

1. His arrival was soon known, as he was seen walking with the rector.

2. Although he was desperately anxious to win, he played the game with scrupulous fairness.

3. Some days passed before they received any satisfaction.

4. After the party had admired the view, we took them into the house.

5. When they ascended the steps to the hall, even Sir William did not look calm.

6. Your resignation is unfortunate, because the firm can ill afford to lose you.

7. I would have come if my train had been on time.

8. After you have returned from the hospital, I will meet you at the library.

9. I was unacquainted with the neighborhood, but I found every one willing to direct me.

10. We knew that we were a little late, for when the chauffeur drew up at the office, the bell rang twelve strokes.

11. Nevins did not know the game; nevertheless he made a good substitute.

12. Such people live by force alone, and the only thing they understand is greater force.

13. Murray spoke before he thought.

14. If you are not for me, you are against me.

15. Irwin has failed because he himself is weak.

16. We can do this while you wait.

17. You have broken the rule; therefore, you will be punished.

18. They did not know which train to take until they had asked Harry.

19. If you buy more stock, you will have control of the company.

20. As soon as it was possible, Garvey crept to the ledge.

85. What the interjection is. In the sentence, *Oh, this will never do!* the word *Oh*, which adds to the feeling expressed by the sentence, has no definite connection grammatically with any particular part of the sentence, but it bears a relationship to the sentence as a whole. It is a word *thrown in* and is called the *interjection*.

An *interjection* is a word that is used to express sudden or strong feeling.

Examples of the interjection are:

1. *Pshaw!* I am very much disappointed.
2. *Alas!* Poor Cock Robin will never return!
3. "*Ah!*" breathed the crowd.
4. *Hurrah!* We've won!
5. *Good work!* That's excellent pitching.
6. Have mercy on Thy people, *O* Lord!

The interjection *Oh* is capitalized only when it begins a sentence. The interjection *O* is used ordinarily with the names of persons, and is always capitalized.

XI. FUNCTION

86. Function. Very many of your difficulties with grammar will disappear if you will remember that the classification of a word, phrase, or clause, depends on the work which it does in the sentence. This idea has been emphasized again and again in this book. The part of speech of a word, phrase, or clause is determined by the work done or function served by that word, phrase, or clause in the sentence.

The following illustrations show how the work of a word, phrase, or clause determines its part of speech.

(a) The moving finger writes.

Here *moving* is an adjective, because it is doing the work of an adjective.

(b) Moving usually takes place in the spring.

Here *moving* is a noun, because it is doing the work of a noun.

(c) The cloud was moving slowly toward the horizon.

Here *moving* is a part of the verb, because it is doing the work of a verb.

(a) He threw the ball over the fence.

Over the fence is here an adverb, because it is doing the work of an adverb.

(b) Over the fence is out.

Over the fence is here a noun, because it is doing the work of a noun.

(a) He knew that I was afraid.

That I was afraid is here a noun, for it is the object of *knew*.

(b) That I was afraid was no disgrace.

That I was afraid is here a noun used as subject of *was*.

(c) I did not go because I was afraid.

Here the clause is an adverb.

(d) They changed the plans for no reason except that I was afraid.

Here the clause is a noun governed by the preposition *except*.

Exercise

Name the part of speech of the italicized words in the following sentences:

1. He called her his *whistling* mother because she always summoned him by means of a clear, bird-like whistle.

2. *Whistling* was too difficult a task for little George.

3. Sam cheered himself during the lonesome hours by *whistling* to himself.

4. The wind was *whistling* through the trees.

5. Mr. Wilson knows *many* people.

6. *Many* of us felt that here lay our duty.

7. I thought grandfather a very *handsome* man.
8. *Handsome* is as *handsome* does.
9. Beauty is its own excuse for *being*.
10. *Being* is better than seeming.
11. He received favors without *asking* for them.
12. Old Thomas was *asking* for aid.
13. I *want* no discussion of the subject.
14. *Want* of decency is *want* of sense.
15. I *call* him a great man.
16. The *call* to arms came opportunely.
17. The *dancing* leaves drifted to the ground.
18. *Dancing* is pleasant exercise.
19. The children were *dancing* around the Maypole.
20. The fishermen came home with a good *catch* today.
21. A song like "Tipperary" or "Dixie" is sure to *catch* popular fancy.
22. A *burst* of military music told that the parade was coming.
23. The bag *burst*, and the apples rolled in all directions.
24. My cup runneth *over*.
25. The kettle stands *over* the fire.

XII. VERB FORMS

87. Tense. Besides expressing action, verbs express the time of that action.

They express present time: I call.

They express past time: I called.

They express future time: I shall call.

The word for time in grammar is *tense*.

There are three different tenses: the present tense, which denotes present time; the past tense, which denotes past time; and the future tense, which denotes time that is to come. Every tense has six possible forms. The three tenses follow:

SINGULAR

PLURAL

Present Tense

- | | |
|-------------|-----------|
| 1. I call | we call |
| 2. you call | you call |
| 3. he calls | they call |

Past Tense

- | | |
|---------------|-------------|
| 1. I called | we called |
| 2. you called | you called |
| 3. he called | they called |

Future Tense

- | | |
|------------------|----------------|
| 1. I shall call | we shall call |
| 2. you will call | you will call |
| 3. he will call | they will call |

The third person singular may have *she* or *it*, or a noun as subject instead of *he*.

In the second person singular an ancient form, *thou*, may be used. When it is used, *-est* is added to the verb; as, *thou callest*. The second person plural to correspond with this is, *ye call*. These forms are rarely employed now except in the Bible or in poetry; so in the arrangement of the forms of the verb they will be omitted.

88. Auxiliary verbs. The verbs *shall* and *will*, because they help form tenses of other verbs, are called *auxiliary* or helping verbs. Later you will learn that *shall* and *will* have other uses, but just now you need know only that plain future time is expressed by *shall* in some forms and *will* in other forms of the future tense.

The word *have* can be used not only as a verb to help form certain tenses of other verbs, but also as an independent verb. Here are the three tenses:

SINGULAR

PLURAL

Present

1. I have
2. you have
3. he has

we have
you have
they have

Past

1. I had
2. you had
3. he had

we had
you had
they had

Future

1. I shall have
2. you will have
3. he will have

we shall have
you will have
they will have

89. **The perfect tenses.** In addition to the three tenses which you have learned, there are three others, which not only express time, but express the relation of that time to some other time.

The first of these additional tenses tells the time with reference to the present; it states an action which at the present moment is completed. Examples:

I have called.

I have laughed.

This tense is called the *present perfect tense*; *present* because it refers to and even includes the present time, *perfect* because the action is spoken of as *completed*.

Note exactly how this present perfect tense is formed. I *have called*. *Have* is the present tense of the verb *have*. The verb *have* is the auxiliary which helps to form all the perfect tenses. Note that the *present* tense of *have* is used to help form the present perfect tense.

The other form which helps make the present perfect tense of *call* is *called*. This looks exactly like the past tense, but it is not. It is a dependent form of the verb named the participle.

The participle is a dependent form of the verb which never can stand alone to do its work as the past tense can; it is always found depending upon some word or words to help it do its work. In the perfect tenses the past participle is always joined to the verb *have*.

To form the present perfect tense, then, you join the present tense of *have* to the past participle of whatever verb you are using.

The present perfect tense of *call*, for instance, is:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I have called	we have called
2. you have called	you have called
3. he has called	they have called

The second of the perfect tenses tells time with reference to the past. That is, it states an action which was completed before some given past time. For instance:

I had telephoned before your note came.

You see the act of telephoning had actually been completed before the moment of past time when your note came.

The name of the perfect tense which states that an action was completed before some given past time is the *past perfect* tense. It may help you to remember the meaning of this tense if you think the action was perfectly complete before some definite past time. This tense is formed in the same way as the present perfect tense, except, of course, that you employ the past tense of *have* instead of the present.

To form the past perfect tense, you join *had*, the past tense of *have*, to the past participle of whatever verb you are using. The past perfect tense of *call*, for instance, is:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I had called	we had called
2. you had called	you had called
3. he had called	they had called

The third of the additional tenses tells time with reference to the future. For example, your friend says to you: "Shall you leave at two o'clock?" You look ahead and see that your plans will necessitate your leaving at one-thirty. So you reply: "No, *I shall have left* by that time." You see you are speaking of an act which will have been completed by two o'clock; you are speaking of an act which will be completed with reference to the future. The name of the tense that tells time with reference to the future is the *future perfect* tense. It is formed on the same principle as the other perfect tenses. The future tense of *have* is joined to the past participle of the given verb. The future perfect tense of the verb *call* is:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I shall have called	we shall have called
2. you will have called	you will have called
3. he will have called	they will have called

Like other verbs, the verb *have* has three perfect tenses. They are formed in the usual way: the proper tense of *have* is joined to the past participle of the verb. The past participle of *have* is *had*. You see *have* helps to form its own perfect tenses. They are:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
<i>Present Perfect</i>	
1. I have had	we have had
2. you have had	you have had
3. he has had	they have had

SINGULAR

PLURAL

Past Perfect

1. 2. 3. I, you, he had had we, you, they had had

Future Perfect

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I shall have had | we shall have had |
| 2. you will have had | you will have had |
| 3. he will have had | they will have had |

You now know definitely that the way to form the perfect tenses of any verb is to join the proper tense of *have* to the past participle of the verb you are using. The next question is, how do you know what the past participle of the verb is?

90. Regular and irregular verbs. Verbs are generally divided into two classes. These classes are regular and irregular. Regular verbs are those whose past tense and past participle are formed by adding *ed* to the present. For instance:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
scold	scolded	scolded
call	called	called
bake	baked	baked
love	loved	loved

Note that when the present tense ends with *e*, only the *d* is added to make the past tense.

91. The principal parts of verbs. You have to learn which verbs are regular by observing them in daily use. You will have little difficulty in making

this distinction if you will learn for every verb you meet the three forms given above. It is important to know these three forms, for they represent what are called the *principal parts* of the verb. They are so called, because, if you know them, you can form any tense of the verb.

You may say that since the past tense and past participle of the verb are alike, there is no need of learning both of these forms. But remember that these forms only *look* alike; their work is different. Besides, you can not be sure that they look alike except in the case of a regular verb, and some that you might think regular are not so; as, *burst, burst, burst*. The irregular verbs are those which do not form their past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the present. The principal parts of these verbs you must learn by heart. Here are some of the most important ones:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
abide	abode	abode
am (be)	was	been
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awaked
bear (bring forth)	bore	born
bear (carry)	bore	borne
beat	beat	beat, beaten
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld
bend	bent	bent
bereave	bereft	bereft
beseech	besought	besought
bet	bet	bet

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
bid (command)	bade, bid	bidden, bid
bid (offer money)	bid	bid
bind	bound	bound
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
chide	chid	chid, chidden
choose	chose	chosen
cleave	cleft	cleft, cloven
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
dwelt	dwelt	dwelt
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
forsake	forsook	forsaken
get	got	got
gird	girt	girt
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung, hanged
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
knit	knit	knit
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie	lay	lain
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
meet	met	niet
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put
quit	quit	quit
read	read	read
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank	shrunk
shrive	shrived, shrove	shriven
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
sling	slung	slung

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
slit	slit	slit
smite	smote	smitten
sow	sowed	sown
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped	sped
spend	spent	spent
spin	spun	spun
spit	spat	spit
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	throve	thrived, thriven
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
weep	wept	wept
wet	wet	wet
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

The perfect tenses of these irregular verbs are formed in exactly the same way as those of the regular ones. Here, however, you see the absolute necessity of knowing the three principal parts of the verb, because the past tense and the past participle of the verb differ in form.

The six tenses of *go* follow:

SINGULAR

PLURAL

Present

1. I go	we go
2. you go	you go
3. he goes	they go

Past

1. I went	we went
2. you went	you went
3. he went	they went

Future

1. I shall go	we shall go
2. you will go	you will go
3. he will go	they will go

If you will look back at the principal parts of *go*, you will see that *gone* is the past participle. To

form the present perfect tense, you combine the present tense of *have* with the past participle of the verb you are forming.

The present perfect tense of *go*, then, is:

SINGULAR

1. I have gone
2. you have gone
3. he has gone

PLURAL

- we have gone
- you have gone
- they have gone

To form the past perfect tense of *go*, you join the past tense of *have* to the past participle.

The past perfect tense is:

SINGULAR

1. I had gone
2. you had gone
3. he had gone

PLURAL

- we had gone
- you had gone
- they had gone

To form the future perfect tense of *go*, you join the future tense of *have* to the past participle.

The future perfect tense is:

SINGULAR

1. I shall have gone
2. you will have gone
3. he will have gone

PLURAL

- we shall have gone
- you will have gone
- they will have gone

Exercises

1. Write the perfect tenses of ten of the verbs given on pages 130-135.

2. You must take great care to use the auxiliary *have* with the proper part of the irregular verb. The auxiliary *have* is never joined to the past tense of an

irregular verb. To say I *have went*, I *have came*, I *have saw*, I *have ran*, is to violate one of the most important rules of the language. Fill the blanks in the following sentences with the proper form of the verb given in brackets.

1. I ——— all the big parades that have been given in this city for a number of years. [see]

2. I ——— all I could afford to patriotic associations. [give]

3. Charles ——— in many of the big races for his college. [run]

4. He ——— at that restaurant for years. [eat]

5. All those boys ——— part in their school athletics. [take]

6. He ——— his best, but the firm has had to discharge him. [do]

7. She ——— to the Old Ladies' Home every Saturday for years. [go]

8. I ——— never ——— such industry as that boy displayed. [see]

9. I ——— never ——— such sweet cantaloupes. [eat]

10. I ——— several times, but I have never found you at home. [come]

3. Just as it is necessary for you to know that the auxiliary verb *have* is never joined to the past tense, so it is necessary for you to avoid using the participle when you should use the past tense. To say I *done*, I *seen*, I *come*, is to make a very bad mistake. Fill the blanks in the following sentences with the proper form of the verb given in brackets.

1. I ——— to school yesterday. [go]

2. I ——— my breakfast at eight yesterday morning. [eat]

3. I —— you last evening as you boarded the car.
[see]
4. I —— to the building earlier than usual this morning. [come]
5. I —— my work yesterday as quickly as possible.
[do]
6. I —— for the doctor at midnight last night, for my sister was ill. [run]
7. I —— a basket of fruit to the hospital last Saturday.
[take]
8. I —— to the theater twice last week. [go]
9. Ruth —— the parade as it passed Broad street.
[see]
10. James —— his whistle at the crossing just as the team drew near. [blow]
11. The workman and the organ-grinder —— their lunch together yesterday at the side of the road. [eat]
12. The policeman —— his best to save the pursued cat. [do]

4. Sometimes other mistakes than these are made in the use of verb forms. *Knowed* for *knew*, *give* for *gave*, *was* for *were*, *drawed* for *drew*, *blowed* for *blew*, should all be avoided as bad errors.

Correct the wrong verb forms in the following sentences:

1. He done everything he could to hinder me.
2. He has went over there since he was a little boy.
3. I never seen such a sight in my life.
4. I have not took that medicine after all.
5. I give you that picture yesterday, didn't I?
6. I have ate too much candy.
7. I blowed the horn, but he did not hear me.

8. I have spoke to you about that before.
9. I drewed the line straight.
10. I have never knew a kinder man.
11. I knowed you'd make trouble for us.
12. I haven't saw that magazine in weeks.
13. You have came just in time.
14. You might have went earlier if we had knew that you were needed.
15. The woman done her level best, but I couldn't hire her.
16. I come yesterday, and I ast him, and he said he would give me the book.
17. I'd have came right over if I had knew you was in trouble.
18. I run as fast as I could, but what good did it do me?
19. I have drank cool water from the spring.

92. The verb *be*. *Be* may be used independently, but it is also one of the chief auxiliary or helping verbs. Its forms are very irregular, and must be learned with care. Here they are:

Principal parts:

be *or* am

was

been

SINGULAR

PLURAL

Present

1. I am

we are

2. you are

you are

3. he is

they are

Past

1. I was

we were

2. you were

you were

3. he was

they were

SINGULAR

PLURAL

Future

- | | |
|----------------|--------------|
| 1. I shall be | we shall be |
| 2. you will be | you will be |
| 3. he will be | they will be |

Present Perfect

- | | |
|------------------|----------------|
| 1. I have been | we have been |
| 2. you have been | you have been |
| 3. he has been | they have been |

Past Perfect

- | | |
|-----------------|---------------|
| 1. I had been | we had been |
| 2. you had been | you had been |
| 3. he had been | they had been |

Future Perfect

- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I shall have been | we shall have been |
| 2. you will have been | you will have been |
| 3. he will have been | they will have been |

93. Forming the passive voice. All the forms you have so far conjugated have been the *active* forms. With the aid of the auxiliary verb *be*, you will now learn to form the *passive* conjugation.

The rule is simple. **Join the proper tense of *be* to the past participle of the given verb.**

According to this rule, the passive forms of the verb *call* are as follows:

SINGULAR

PLURAL

Present

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1. I am called | we are called |
| 2. you are called | you are called |
| 3. he is called | they are called |

Past

- | | |
|--------------------|------------------|
| 1. I was called | we were called |
| 2. you were called | you were called |
| 3. he was called | they were called |

Future

- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I shall be called | we shall be called |
| 2. you will be called | you will be called |
| 3. he will be called | they will be called |

Present Perfect

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. I have been called | we have been called |
| 2. you have been called | you have been called |
| 3. he has been called | they have been called |

Past Perfect

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. I had been called | we had been called |
| 2. you had been called | you had been called |
| 3. he had been called | they had been called |

Future Perfect

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been called | we shall have been called |
| 2. you will have been called | you will have been called |
| 3. he will have been called | they will have been called |

Not all verbs are used in the passive. *Laugh*, for instance, is not. *I am laughed* is impossible.

Exercise

Write in the passive voice the six tenses of *scold*, *warn*, and *teach*.

Use in sentences the forms indicated in the list following:

1. The present perfect active, third person singular, of *swim*.
2. The present passive, first person plural, of *deceive*.
3. The future perfect, first person singular of *go*.
4. The past active, second person plural of *come*.
5. The past passive, third person plural, of *deny*.
6. The past perfect passive, first person plural, of *refuse*.
7. The future passive, first person singular, of *grieve*.
8. The present perfect active, third person plural, of *known*.
9. Write the six tenses in the active voice and the six tenses in the passive voice of *appoint*.

Use one form of each tense in a sentence.

94. Agreement of subject and verb in person and number. You have learned that nouns and pronouns change their form to indicate person and number. In studying the verb forms given in this chapter, you have seen that the verb sometimes changes its form according to the person and number of its subject. You will notice, for instance, that several forms of *be* change as the subject changes.

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
<i>First person</i>	I am	we are
<i>Second person</i>	you are	you are
<i>Third person</i>	he is	they are

Most verbs, however, make very few changes to indicate person and number. The most frequent change occurs in the third person singular, as is evident in the inflected forms given above. Most of the

cases requiring attention in this connection are noted below.

General rule: **A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.**

Note these special instances:

1. Two or more singular subjects connected by *and* take a plural verb. Example:

Money and influence *are* what I need.

2. Be careful to make a verb agree with its subject, not with any word intervening between it and the subject.

Wrong: A frank discussion of the principles involved were given.

Right: A frank discussion of the principles involved *was* given.

3. Words joined to the subject by *with*, *including*, *as well as*, do not affect the number of the subject.

Right: The instructor, as well as the boys, *was* alarmed.

4. Nouns modified by *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *no*, etc., take singular verbs. Example:

Every man *is* liable for military service.

5. The pronouns *each*, *everybody*, *anybody*, etc., take singular verbs. Example:

Everybody *likes* candy.

6. Nouns in the singular connected by *or* or *nor* take a singular verb. Example:

Neither Nathan nor Matthew *has* come.

7. Two nouns, one singular and one plural, connected by *or* or *nor*, require a verb to take the person and number of the noun nearer it. Example:

Either John or the girls *are* to blame.

Neither the men nor their employer *is* at fault.

8. Nouns that indicate a group (collective nouns) take a plural verb when the members of the group are considered individually and a singular verb when the group is considered as a unit. Examples:

The congregation *are* all indignant.

The regiment *is* ready to advance.

9. Verbs agree in person and number with the nearer of two pronominal subjects connected by *or* or *nor*. Example:

You or I am wanted at any minute.

Do not say: *There is a peach and a pear in the basket.* Change the construction of your sentence in order to avoid this offending confusion of number. Say: *A peach and a pear are in the basket.*

Exercise

Copy the following sentences, filling in the blanks with the proper form selected from the brackets:

1. The baggage, including two suitcases and two trunks [was, were] lost.

2. Neither one of these plays [are, is] very entertaining.
3. Everybody [were, was] excited.
4. No one except the spectators [was, were] aware of the damage that was done.
5. The company of soldiers [were, was] located in a camp in New Jersey.
6. Which one of these ties [is, are] yours?
7. Either you or John [are, is] bound to go.
8. The family [is, are] all well.
9. A jury of twelve men [were, was] selected for the trial.
10. One man out of a hundred [was, were] chosen as a delegate.
11. A part of the candies that remained [were, was] uneatable.
12. Ted or Richard [is, are] scheduled to help this afternoon.
13. My mother, as well as my sisters [are, is] going.
14. One of the robbers [has, have] been caught.
15. City Hall Plaza, with its lights and decorations [were, was] a beautiful sight.
16. In spite of all obstacles the construction of the wireless stations [was, were] completed.
17. Each of the men chosen [were, was] notified by mail and [were, was] asked to report at once.
18. The distinction between real and apparent causes [are, is] often difficult to make.
19. The cost of these typewriters [have, has] risen.
20. One of the arguments he offered [seem, seems] especially convincing.

95. Sequence of tenses. Study this sentence:

I came to the gymnasium as soon as I had finished my theme.

Here are two verbs: *came*, the verb of the independent clause, and *had finished*, the verb of the dependent clause. Which action occurred earlier, *came* or *had finished*? Does the sentence express correctly the relative time of the two acts?

Do the verbs express correctly the relative time of the two acts in the following sentences?

1. The game had begun before I arrived.
2. I shall write you as soon as I receive the necessary information.
3. He will have gone to France before your letter reaches him.
4. When our soldiers advanced, the enemy retreated.

The tense of the verb in the dependent clause depends upon the time-relationship which that clause bears to the independent clause.

The tense of the verb in the dependent clause must always be in harmony with the tense of the verb in the independent clause. Examples:

- I *shall* go if you *wish* it.
- I *should* go if you *wished* it.
- I *should have gone* if you *had wished* it.
- If I *have* the key, I *will* send it.
- If I *had* the key, I *would* send it.
- If I *had had* the key, I *would have sent* it.

The relation of the tenses in the different clauses of a sentence is called the sequence of tenses. You will have little trouble with sequence of tenses if you will carefully study your sentences to see whether

or not you have said exactly what you mean. For example, study this sentence:

Yesterday, I talked to a sailor who escaped from a shipwreck.

The relative time of these two acts is not exactly expressed. Which occurred first, the talking or the escaping? You can express the relative time of the two acts by changing the tense of the verb *escape*.

Yesterday, I talked to a sailor who *had escaped* from shipwreck.

Present facts and unchangeable truths are stated in the present tense, even if the time of the verb of the independent clause is past or future. For example:

- (a) Some day he will learn that honesty *pays*.
- (b) His father had frequently told him that debt *is* a millstone around the debtor's neck.
- (c) Did he tell you what the population of New York *is*?

96. Direct and indirect quotations. Notice that a direct quotation gives the exact words of the speaker. In changing from a direct to an indirect quotation, a change of tense is frequently necessary. For instance:

Direct quotation: His father had said to him, "You may sell the horse for a hundred dollars if Mr. Wright will pay no more."

Indirect quotation: His father had told him that he might sell the horse for a hundred dollars if Mr. Wright would pay no more.

97. Harmony of verb and adverb. Do not join a verb which expresses the idea that the action has been completed with an adverb which shows that the action has not yet been completed.

Wrong: I didn't finish it yet.

Right: I haven't finished it yet.

Exercise

Copy the following sentences, filling the blank with the correct form of the verb in brackets:

1. When the gong sounded, we all — for the goal.
[run]
2. The first thing he knew of it was that his employer
— — him. [discharge]
3. It is just a month to-day since I — here. [come]
4. I — — her ever since she was born. [know]
5. I — — her shoes since she was a little girl.
[sell]
6. Six months ago I concluded that I — all wrong.
[be]
7. I did this before you — in. [come]
8. I have never seen a boy who — — such a
struggle. [make]
9. I saw her before you — the street. [cross]
10. He said he — acquainted with the city. [be]
11. She will be frightened if she — the animal. [see]
12. I hoped to see you before I — to town. [come]
13. It is a year ago to-day since I — you. [meet]
14. I had reached the house before Kenyon —.
[telegraph]
15. Six ingots were heated to white heat, and then one
— — out of the oven. [take]

16. He knew that the mail —— delivered at eight every day. [be]

17. He was asked if he knew where Waterloo —— . [be]

18. He was unfamiliar with London, but he showed us where Westminster —— . [be]

Write the following sentences correctly:

1. I didn't do it yet.
2. I didn't see her yet.
3. I didn't read the letter yet.
4. He didn't send the telegram yet.
5. Grandmother did not make the cake yet.

98. Participles. You have learned the form of the past participles *called* and *gone* for the verbs *call* and *go*. In all there are five participles for every verb, and these, like the rest of the verb, have active and passive forms. Be prepared to form the participles of every verb after the model you see here.

	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
<i>Present</i>	calling	being called
<i>Past</i>		called
<i>Perfect</i>	having called	having been called

Exercise

Form the participles of ten irregular verbs chosen from the list on pages 130–135.

Use the five participles of *detain* in as many sentences.

99. Mood.

- (a) John went home.
- (b) If the sun were shining, I would go.
- (c) Please bring me my tape-measure.

There are, as you see from studying these sentences, three possible ways of making a statement. You can state it as a matter of plain fact, as in (a). You can indicate that if something were true which is not true, you would do differently, as in (b). You can give a command, as in (c). Differences in dress or fashions are said to be differences in the mode of the day. Differences in the manner of making a statement by changing the verb form are also said to be differences in *mode*, or *mood*. From the three possibilities expressed in the sentences above, then, you see that there are three moods.

100. The indicative mood. A verb which merely makes a statement of fact, as in (a), is said to be in the *indicative* mood. A verb that asks a question is said to be in the *indicative* mood. This is the mood most used. The forms of the six tenses which you have already studied make up the indicative mood. Examples of tenses in the indicative mood are:

1. They *have taken* my word for it.
2. *Will* you go with me?

101. The subjunctive mood. A verb which expresses uncertainty, or wish, or something contrary to fact upon which something else depends, is said to be in the *subjunctive* mood. Examples are:

Uncertainty: If he *come*, I shall rejoice.

Wish: Oh, that we two were *Maying*!

Something contrary to fact, on which something else depends:

If the sun *were* shining, I would go.

If James *were* here, mother would not be so nervous.

The forms of the verb in the subjunctive mood are usually preceded by *if*. Although *if* is not a part of the verb, it so often accompanies it to help create the idea of uncertainty or wish that we place it before the subjunctive forms. These forms are very much like the indicative; in fact, often you can not tell from the written or spoken form which mood is being used, but the *sense* of the *sentence* always helps you out of this difficulty. The subjunctive mood nowadays is very rarely used; the sentence expressing a condition contrary to fact is the use which requires most attention. Do not say, "If he *was* here," but say, "If he *were* here."

The forms of the subjunctive mood follow:

ACTIVE	
SINGULAR	PLURAL
<i>Present</i>	
if I, you, he call	if we, you, they call
<i>Past</i>	
if I, you, he called	if we, you, they called
<i>Future</i>	
<i>(lacking)</i>	
<i>Present Perfect</i>	
if I, you, he have called	if we, you, they have called

SINGULAR	PLURAL
<i>Past Perfect</i>	
if I, you, he had called	if we, you, they had called
<i>Future Perfect</i>	
<i>(lacking)</i>	
PASSIVE	
<i>Present</i>	
if I, you, he be called	if we, you, they be called
<i>Past</i>	
if I, you, he were called	if we, you, they were called
<i>Future and Future Perfect</i>	
<i>(lacking)</i>	
<i>Present Perfect</i>	
if I, you, he have been called	if we, you, they have been called
<i>Past Perfect</i>	
if I, you, he had been called	if we, you, they had been called

Sometimes the subjunctive is expressed without *if* in this way: *Had he called*, I would have come.

102. The imperative mood. A command must always be addressed to some one; therefore, only the second person singular and the second person plural are used in the imperative mood. Although the form

may be preceded by *please*, the mood is the same, even if the command in this way seems much softened. The forms follow:

Active, singular and plural: You call.

Passive, singular and plural: You be called.

The subject of the verb in the imperative mood is always *you*, singular or plural, and since this fact is so well understood, the subject is almost always omitted.

Exercise

Tell the mood of every verb in the following sentences:

1. She told him in her own fashion of the story she had heard.
2. The man followed me down the aisle and out of the car.
3. "If I were you—" she said, and then stopped.
4. "Wait!" commanded the general.
5. "Do not go there again," said father, sternly.
6. The little shop was completely filled with machinery.
7. If this statement be true, I am safe.
8. March offered no apology for his questions.
9. Jim laid his pipe on the table and stared at me in amazement.
10. The essentials of the contract are all agreed upon.

103. Infinitives. There is another form of the verb which is used chiefly in dependent constructions. This form is called the *infinitive*. The form of the present infinitive is always the same as the present

tense of the verb, except in the case of the verb *be*. The infinitive is usually preceded by the word *to*, which is regarded as part of the verb, and which in this connection you must distinguish from the preposition *to*. (See chapter IV.) There are some cases in which the *to* is omitted before the infinitive.

Infinitives of the verb *call*:

ACTIVE	PASSIVE
<i>Present</i> to call	to be called
<i>Perfect</i> to have called	to have been called

Infinitives of *be*:

<i>Present</i> to be
<i>Perfect</i> to have been

Exercise

Form the infinitives of ten verbs chosen from the list on pages 130–135.

Tell the tense of the infinitives in the following sentences:

1. I am glad to hear of your success.
2. I am glad to have seen you.
3. I am sorry to tell you such bad news.
4. I shall be willing to take part in the exercises.
5. I refused to grant her request, for she had no right to make it.
6. She is known to have gone there in the past.
7. He felt glad to have seen the president.
8. I am happy to serve you.
9. It is hard to be punished undeservedly.
10. To have known her would have been a great pleasure.

104. Tense of the infinitive. It is important that the tense of the infinitive should express the thought accurately in relation to the time of the verb on which it depends.

If the action indicated by the infinitive is taking place at the same time as that of the verb on which it depends, or if the action indicated by the infinitive is future with respect to the verb on which it depends, the present infinitive should be used. Examples:

Action taking place at same time:

- (a) I intended to go.
- (b) He wanted to come.
- (c) I have hoped to go abroad.

Action future with respect to verb:

I expected to write a letter.

The perfect infinitive is used to denote action which is completed at the time indicated by the verb on which the infinitive depends. Examples:

- (a) He is reported to have been wounded.
- (b) I am glad to have seen the Alps.

Supply the proper forms of the infinitive in the blanks in the following sentences:

1. I hoped [to finish, to have finished] before you arrived.
2. He thought it his duty [to support, to have supported] his mother.
3. Milton is said [to live, to have lived] a lonesome life.
4. His captain expected him [to make, to have made] a touchdown.

5. All the property was [to be sold, to have been sold] at auction, but the sale was prevented.

6. I intended [to tell, to have told] him yesterday.

7. I was glad [to do, to have done] the errand for you.

105. The infinitive without the sign *to*. After certain verbs, the sign of the infinitive *to* is omitted. In such cases, the infinitive is used in a complementary or completing sense. Such an infinitive is called the complementary infinitive. Some of these verbs are: *bid, dare, feel, let, make, may, need, please, see*.

The following sentences contain illustrations of this use of the infinitive:

1. Let me *stay* with you during the storm.

2. He dares *do* all that a man can do.

3. You heard me *say* I was coming.

4. You can lead a horse to water, but you can not make him *drink*.

5. I saw you *signal* the train.

6. I saw the film *unfold* slowly.

106. The split infinitive. Avoid separating the infinitive and its sign.

Wrong: He hopes to always be ready when he is called.

Right: He hopes always to be ready when he is called.

107. The progressive form. The progressive form of the verb is so called because it represents an action in progress at the time indicated by the tense. This form of the verb is made according to the scheme

with which you are familiar; it is formed by means of an auxiliary plus a participle.

To form any tense of the progressive active conjugation, join the proper tense of the verb *be* to the present participle of the given verb.

For example, to form the present active progressive form of *call*, join the present tense of *be* to the present participle of *call*, *calling*.

SINGULAR

PLURAL

Progressive

1. I am calling
2. you are calling
3. he is calling

we are calling
you are calling
they are calling

To form the past tense, progressive form of *call*, join the past tense of *be* to the present participle. Result, *I was calling*, etc.

To form the present passive progressive form of *call*, join the proper tense of *be* to the present passive participle of *call*. Result, *I am being called*. The past passive progressive is: *I was being called*. Proceed in the same way to form the other tenses.

108. Conjugation. You are now ready for the detailed definition of *conjugation*, which you have so far kept in mind as merely a "convenient arrangement" of the forms of the verb.

Conjugation is the orderly arrangement of the verb forms according to mood, voice, tense, person, and number.

Here is the entire conjugation, active and passive forms, of the verbs *call*, *see*, and *be*, which can be used as representative of all verbs.

INDICATIVE MOOD

ACTIVE VOICE

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Present Tense</i>	{ I call you call he calls	we call you call they call
<i>Past Tense</i>	{ I called you called he called	we called you called they called
<i>Future Tense</i>	{ I shall call you will call he will call	we shall call you will call they will call
<i>Perfect Tense</i>	{ I have called you have called he has called	we have called you have called they have called
<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	{ I had called you had called he had called	we had called you had called they had called
<i>Future Perfect Tense</i>	{ I shall have called you will have called he will have called	we shall have called you will have called they will have called

The conjugation of *call* is given as an illustration of a regular verb.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

ACTIVE VOICE

<i>Present Tense</i>	{ if I call if you call if he call	if we call if you call if they call
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	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Past Tense</i>	{ if I called if you called if he called	if we called if you called if they called
<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	{ if I have called if you have called if he have called	if we have called if you have called if they have called
<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	{ if I had called if you had called if he had called	if we had called if you had called if they had called

IMPERATIVE MOOD: *Present Tense, Singular and Plural*: Call.

INFINITIVES: *Present*: To call; *Present Perfect*: To have called.

PARTICIPLES: *Present*: Calling; *Present Perfect*: Having called.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PASSIVE VOICE

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Present Tense</i>	{ I am called you are called he is called	we are called you are called they are called
<i>Past Tense</i>	{ I was called you were called he was called	we were called you were called they were called
<i>Future Tense</i>	{ I shall be called you will be called he will be called	we shall be called you will be called they will be called
<i>Perfect Tense</i>	{ I have been called you have been called he has been called	we have been called you have been called they have been called

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	{ I had been called you had been called he had been called	we had been called you had been called they had been called
<i>Future Perfect Tense</i>	{ I shall have been called you will have been called he will have been called	we shall have been called you will have been called they will have been called

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

PASSIVE VOICE

<i>Present Tense</i>	{ if I be called if you be called if he be called	if we be called if you be called if they be called
<i>Past Tense</i>	{ if I were called if you were called if he were called	if we were called if you were called if they were called
<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	{ if I have been called if you have been called if he have been called	if we have been called if you have been called if they have been called
<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	{ if I had been called if you had been called if he had been called	if we had been called if you had been called if they had been called

IMPERATIVE MOOD, *Present Tense, Singular and Plural*: Be called.

INFINITIVES, *Present*: To be called; *Present Perfect*: To have been called.

PARTICIPLES, *Present*: Being called; *Past*: Called; *Present Perfect*: Having been called.

INDICATIVE MOOD

ACTIVE VOICE

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Present Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I see} \\ 2. \text{ you see} \\ 3. \text{ he sees} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{we see} \\ \text{you see} \\ \text{they see} \end{array} \right.$
<i>Past Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I saw} \\ 2. \text{ you saw} \\ 3. \text{ he saw} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{we saw} \\ \text{you saw} \\ \text{they saw} \end{array} \right.$
<i>Future Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I shall see} \\ 2. \text{ you will see} \\ 3. \text{ he will see} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{we shall see} \\ \text{you will see} \\ \text{they will see} \end{array} \right.$
<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I have seen} \\ 2. \text{ you have seen} \\ 3. \text{ he has seen} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{we have seen} \\ \text{you have seen} \\ \text{they have seen} \end{array} \right.$
<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I had seen} \\ 2. \text{ you had seen} \\ 3. \text{ he had seen} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{we had seen} \\ \text{you had seen} \\ \text{they had seen} \end{array} \right.$
<i>Future Perfect Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I shall have seen} \\ 2. \text{ you will have seen} \\ 3. \text{ he will have seen} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{we shall have seen} \\ \text{you will have seen} \\ \text{they will have seen} \end{array} \right.$

The conjugation of *see* is given as an illustration of the irregular verb.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

ACTIVE VOICE

<i>Present Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ if I see} \\ 2. \text{ if you see} \\ 3. \text{ if he see} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{if we see} \\ \text{if you see} \\ \text{if they see} \end{array} \right.$
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	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Past Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ if I saw} \\ 2. \text{ if you saw} \\ 3. \text{ if he saw} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{if we saw} \\ \text{if you saw} \\ \text{if they saw} \end{array} \right.$
<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ if I have seen} \\ 2. \text{ if you have seen} \\ 3. \text{ if he have seen} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{if we have seen} \\ \text{if you have seen} \\ \text{if they have seen} \end{array} \right.$
<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ if I had seen} \\ 2. \text{ if you had seen} \\ 3. \text{ if he had seen} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{if we had seen} \\ \text{if you had seen} \\ \text{if they had seen} \end{array} \right.$

IMPERATIVE MOOD, *Present Tense, Singular and Plural*: See.
 INFINITIVES, *Present*: To see; *Present Perfect*: To have seen.
 PARTICIPLES, *Present*: Seeing; *Present Perfect*: Having seen.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PASSIVE VOICE

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Present Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I am seen} \\ 2. \text{ you are seen} \\ 3. \text{ he is seen} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{we are seen} \\ \text{you are seen} \\ \text{they are seen} \end{array} \right.$
<i>Past Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I was seen} \\ 2. \text{ you were seen} \\ 3. \text{ he was seen} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{we were seen} \\ \text{you were seen} \\ \text{they were seen} \end{array} \right.$
<i>Future Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I shall be seen} \\ 2. \text{ you will be seen} \\ 3. \text{ he will be seen} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{we shall be seen} \\ \text{you will be seen} \\ \text{they will be seen} \end{array} \right.$
<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I have been seen} \\ 2. \text{ you have been} \\ \quad \text{seen} \\ 3. \text{ he has been seen} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{we have been seen} \\ \text{you have been seen} \\ \text{they have been seen} \end{array} \right.$

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I had been seen 2. you had been seen 3. he had been seen 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> we had been seen you had been seen they had been seen
<i>Future Perfect Tense</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I shall have been seen 2. you will have been seen 3. he will have been seen 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> we shall have been seen you will have been seen they will have been seen

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

PASSIVE VOICE

<i>Present Tense</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. if I be seen 2. if you be seen 3. if he be seen 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> if we be seen if you be seen if they be seen
<i>Past Tense</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. if I were seen 2. if you were seen 3. if he were seen 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> if we were seen if you were seen if they were seen
<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. if I have been seen 2. if you have been seen 3. if he have been seen 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> if we have been seen if you have been seen if they have been seen
<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. if I had been seen 2. if you had been seen 3. if he had been seen 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> if we had been seen if you had been seen if they had been seen

IMPERATIVE MOOD, *Present Tense, Singular and Plural*: Be seen.

INFINITIVES, *Present*: To be seen; *Present Perfect*: To have been seen.

PARTICIPLES, *Present*: Being seen; *Past*: Seen; *Present Perfect*: Having been seen.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *TO BE*

INDICATIVE MOOD

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Present Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I am} \\ 2. \text{ you are} \\ 3. \text{ he is} \end{array} \right.$	we are you are they are
<i>Past Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I was} \\ 2. \text{ you were} \\ 3. \text{ he was} \end{array} \right.$	we were you were they were
<i>Future Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I shall be} \\ 2. \text{ you will be} \\ 3. \text{ he will be} \end{array} \right.$	we shall be you will be they will be
<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I have been} \\ 2. \text{ you have been} \\ 3. \text{ he has been} \end{array} \right.$	we have been you have been they have been
<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I had been} \\ 2. \text{ you had been} \\ 3. \text{ he had been} \end{array} \right.$	we had been you had been they had been
<i>Future Perfect Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ I shall have been} \\ 2. \text{ you will have been} \\ 3. \text{ he will have been} \end{array} \right.$	we shall have been you will have been they will have been

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Present Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ if I be} \\ 2. \text{ if you be} \\ 3. \text{ if he be} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{if we be} \\ \text{if you be} \\ \text{if they be} \end{array} \right.$
<i>Past Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ if I were} \\ 2. \text{ if you were} \\ 3. \text{ if he were} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{if we were} \\ \text{if you were} \\ \text{if they were} \end{array} \right.$
<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ if I have been} \\ 2. \text{ if you have been} \\ 3. \text{ if he have been} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{if we have been} \\ \text{if you have been} \\ \text{if they have been} \end{array} \right.$
<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ if I had been} \\ 2. \text{ if you had been} \\ 3. \text{ if he had been} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{if we had been} \\ \text{if you had been} \\ \text{if they had been} \end{array} \right.$

IMPERATIVE MOOD, *Present, Singular and Plural*: Be.

INFINITIVE, *Present*: To be; *Perfect*: To have been.

PARTICIPLES, *Present*: Being; *Past*: Been; *Perfect*: Having been.

109. Auxiliary verbs. There are certain English verbs which are used to help form other verbs and to give shades of meaning which could not be expressed without them. These verbs are called *auxiliary verbs*; they are *be, do, have, shall, will, may, can, must, might, could, would, and should*.¹

110. Shall and will. *Shall* and *will* are the most troublesome of these verbs. In addition to expressing simple future time, *shall* and *will* may express promise, determination, and command.

¹ *Be, do, and have* are also used as independent verbs.

Shall in the first person expresses simple future time. Promise is usually expressed only by the first person. *Will* is used to express promise. Keep in mind the difference between simple future time and promise.

Study the following sentences:

(a) I *shall* be there at three o'clock.

This merely means that in the proper course of future time you will be there at three.

(b) I *will* be there at three o'clock.

This is a promise that you will be there at three.

Determination is also expressed in the first person by the auxiliary *will*. Study the following sentences:

(a) I shall come at three o'clock. (Simple future.)

(b) I will come at three o'clock. (A promise.)

(c) I will come at three o'clock, if all the world forbid me. (Determination to come.)

It is easy to see the difference between a simple future use of the auxiliary and a determination use. Simple future just comes along; determination on the part of the speaker *changes* the future. In the sentence,

I will accomplish my end in spite of all obstacles,
you see that the speaker is determined to surmount those obstacles. In the sentence,

I shall die like the rest of men,
the speaker is merely referring to what, in the usual course of events, will happen: an occurrence which, probably, he will not determine to hasten.

Willingness is another shade of meaning expressed in the first person by *will*. Example:

Will you help me out, please? Indeed I *will*, gladly!

To sum up the possibilities of expression in the first person, by the use of *shall* and *will*, you have:

1. The expression of the simple future—*shall*.
2. The expression of promise—*will*.
3. The expression of determination—*will*.
4. The expression of willingness—*will*.

Will in the second and third persons expresses simple future time. *Command* or determination is expressed in the second and third persons by *shall*. Examples:

- (a) You shall obey me.
- (b) He shall do as I say.

Willingness is expressed by the use of the form *will* in the second and third persons. Examples:

- (a) Bring me that ink, if you will, please.
- (b) He will help me, then, in spite of his objections?

Promise is expressed by the use of the form *shall* in the second and third persons.

In tabular form, these facts are:

First person:

Shall—simple future.

Will—promise and willingness.

Will—determination.

Second person:

Will—simple future.

Will—willingness and command.

Shall—command and promise.

Third person:

Will—simple future.

Will—willingness.

Shall—command.

Shall—promise.

You must be careful to learn these distinctions in the use of *shall* and *will*. A story illustrating what might be the sad consequences of neglecting this duty concerns a Frenchman who was having great difficulty in mastering the troublesome details of our language. It is said that this Frenchman was boat-riding on a lake with a party of friends. The boat was unfortunately upset. In panic, the Frenchman cried, “I *will* drown; nobody *shall* help me!” Since he had expressed his determination to drown, and had forbidden his friends to aid him, they left him to his fate.

Questions involving the use of *shall* and *will* are expressed in the forms for the simple future:

Shall I go?

Will you go?

Will he go?

Never say, *Will I go?*

A question which expects the answer *shall* is asked by *shall*, and one that expects the answer *will* is asked by *will*.

Shall you go?

Yes, I shall.

Notice that if you say, “Will you go to the concert?” you are extending an invitation; if you say,

"Shall you go to the concert?" you are simply asking a question.

Exercise

Supply the proper form of *shall*, or *will* in the blanks in the following sentences:

1. I —— go if the weather permits.
2. He can help me if he ——.
3. You —— do as I tell you.
4. "Mary —— not go to that place," said her father.
5. I —— check every sign of opposition to my plan.
6. We —— go to church to-morrow as usual.
7. You —— be at the convention, I suppose?
8. He —— meet me at Broad Street, as we planned, and we —— then decide what to do next.
9. I —— come, I assure you.
10. Nobody —— gain by your telling a falsehood.
11. I —— read "Treasure Island" next.
12. He —— never go there again. It is no place for small boys.
13. I —— never get over the shock of that news.
14. We —— telegraph you as soon as we arrive.
15. —— you take the train or the boat?
16. —— he be here in time for the game?
17. I —— never cease to regret what I did.
18. Good-bye! We —— see you to-morrow as usual.
19. We —— not allow any further trespassing.
20. I —— be delighted to see you.

111. **Would and should.** *Would* expresses the past of will in the sense of determination:

"Oh, well, he *would* do it, against everyone's advice, and now he is getting his punishment."

Would expresses the past of *will* in the sense of willingness:

He would do anything she wished.

Would sometimes expresses an accustomed action:

He would go there, night after night, and stare at his old home. Then, sadly, he would walk away.

Would sometimes expresses a willingness that depends on something that was not possible:

He would have gone if he could.

Would sometimes expresses a wish:

I would that I might have my way!

The uses of *should*, the past tense of *shall*, do not correspond so regularly with the uses of *shall* as do the uses of *would* to the uses of *will*. *Should* is used to express a condition on which something else is made to depend:

If he should come, what will you do?

What if more people should come than have written acceptances! We should not have enough cakes!

Should has also acquired a definite use as a word expressing obligation or warning:

(a) It matters not what he wishes to do; there is his duty, and he should do it.

(b) You should never pour hot water on cut glass.

There is no absolute rule by which you can govern yourself in the use of *would* and *should*, except to listen to those who speak carefully.

There are some definite things to avoid. For instance:

Wrong: If he would come, I would speak to him.
This sentence is wrong. What the person means is:

Right: If he comes, I shall speak to him.

Another use to avoid:

Wrong: If he would have been there, I should have been happy.

Right: If he had been there, I should have been happy.

Exercise

Correct the wrong use of *would* in the following sentences:

1. If we would have been fifteen minutes later, we should have been killed.

2. If he would have known the country, he would have acted as our guide.

3. If I would have brought this book before, I should have saved myself much trouble.

4. If he would have driven the machine carefully, the accident would not have happened.

112. May and can. *May* and *can* are frequently confused. .

May carries the idea of permission or possibility.

Permission: May I go to the theater?

Possibility: Do not wait for Charles; he may come, but I doubt it.

Can carries the idea of power or ability.

Wrong: *Can* I go to the theater?

Right: The Government of the United States *can* pay all its debts.

113. Using the participle. You have learned the forms of the participle, and you have learned one of its uses; namely, to help form the tenses of the progressive and passive forms of the verb. To determine one of the other uses of the participle, study this sentence:

Mary, carrying the pitcher to the well, spilled the water.

What does the present participle *carrying* do in the sentence? You see at once the verbal force in *carrying*, for it expresses action received by the noun *pitcher*, which is, therefore, the direct object of *carrying*. But in section 89, you saw that the participle is never used as an independent asserter of action, as the tenses of the verb are. The participle, even though it expresses action, is always dependent on some other word in the sentence. *Carrying* here describes *Mary*. She is a *carrying Mary*. The relation which *carrying* bears to *Mary* is the relation of the adjective to its noun. The participle, while retaining the power of the verb to express action and to govern a noun as object, shares also the nature of the adjective. Its duty, then, is two-fold.

Select the participles used as adjectives in the following sentences. Tell what word each participle modifies and what noun, if any, it governs.

1. The beach, having been swept by the storm, was bleak and desolate.

2. Edith, crying as hard as she could, was returned to her anxious parents.

3. He repaired the boat, battered by the flood, so that it was as good as new.

4. The speaker stood before the audience, vainly struggling for control.

5. Knowing that he must win the battle, the general stuck valiantly to his position.

6. Having expressed his confidence in me, the chief sent me on the dangerous mission.

7. He sent the telegram, hoping against hope that it would reach me.

8. Waving the red shirt wildly across the tracks, James succeeded in his effort to stop the train.

9. Making a last desperate attempt, the soldier crawled once more to the edge of the embankment.

10. Wishing to accomplish my aim, I sat patiently and waited until all the others had interviewed the great man.

11. The boy stood at the window, looking wistfully across the fields.

Some participles have been used as adjectives so much that the idea of action has been wholly lost. In these cases the word is counted a mere adjective, and is so treated. Examples are:

1. No place under the *shining* sun is so pretty.

2. The *bending* boughs made an arch across the roadway.

3. *Torn* bits of paper were strewn on the floor.

4. The *fluttering* leaves danced in the wind.

114. The dangling participle. The participle used as an adjective must adhere to the rules governing the

use of the adjective. It must modify some noun or pronoun in the sentence, and bear the adjective relation to the noun or pronoun modified. The use of a participle without this relationship is a serious error.

Here is an example of this error:

Wrong: After hurriedly eating my supper, my automobile was found to be out of commission.

Did my automobile eat my supper?

Right: After hurriedly eating my supper, I found that my automobile was out of commission.

In the sentence marked "Wrong" you see that *eating* does not bear the relationship of an adjective to any word in the sentence. In fact, *eating* is dangling at loose ends in this sentence. A participle so carelessly used is called a dangling participle. You should carefully avoid such mistakes by doing one of two things:

1. Make the participle bear the relationship of the adjective to a noun in the sentence.
2. Expand the participial phrase into a clause.

Here is a sentence which, corrected by method 1, would read:

Wrong: Rowing down the river, a wonderful scene unfolded before us.

Right: Rowing down the river, we saw a wonderful scene unfold before us.

If you correct this sentence according to method 2, you have:

Right: As we rowed down the river, we saw a wonderful scene unfold before us.

Exercise

Correct the sentences in the following exercise:

1. Standing by the elevator, a girl came up to me and said, "You are needed at once."

2. Supposing that all was well, the flag was waved by the brakeman as a signal to go ahead.

3. Having procured a luncheon, the train carried us toward the picnic grounds.

4. Not understanding the conditions, mistakes were made by us which we regretted very much.

5. Feeling dreadfully puzzled, the directions were not clear to Alice.

6. There we landed, and, having eaten our lunch, the steamer departed.

7. I saw a few hats that I liked on the counter, and after trying some of them on, the saleswoman brought still more from the drawers.

8. Walking down in the sun, the day seemed lovely.

9. On asking George, he said he did not know.

10. Not being a clear day, we could not see the harbor.

11. Digging a few feet down, bones were discovered by the laborers.

12. Giving the girl our tickets, she showed us our seats.

13. After long wondering what my fate was to be, my cell was opened.

14. Being overcome by the gas, we carried him out.

15. Looking at it from our height, it made a pretty picture.

16. Strolling through the woods, my attention was attracted by a strange noise.

17. After crying and begging, we allowed the child to go.

18. Having lost my book, my card was retained by the librarian.

19. Waiting for the elevator, my feet grew very tired.

20. Leaving everything, the train was held for me, and I just caught it.

115. The gerund. There is another dependent part of the verb, called the gerund. The forms of the gerund are exactly like those of the present and perfect participles. The duties of the gerund and the participle, however, are different. The participle is used like an adjective; the gerund is used like a noun. The gerund retains its verbal character in that it may govern the case of nouns. For the verb *call*, the forms of the gerund are as follows:

ACTIVE	PASSIVE
<i>Present</i> calling	being called
<i>Perfect</i> having called	having been called

The following sentences illustrate the use of the gerund:

(a) *Swimming* is good exercise.

(b) *Seeing* is *believing*.

(c) He believes in *making* hay while the sun shines.

XIII. PUNCTUATION

116. What punctuation is. In sections 2, 3, and 4 are explained three marks which are used at the ends of sentences in order to show at once just how the writer wishes the sentence to be understood. What are these marks called?

There are other marks which help you to understand sentences. If it were not for these marks, you would have to spend much time in puzzling out what the sentences mean. Read, for instance, this sentence:

They are beautiful little things said Ivan lifting his cap and as the footman turned away he uttered his few Russian words once more and moved off without even glancing at the lady.

You are compelled to read this sentence three or four times to see what it means. Repeated readings are a waste of time. Besides learning marks for the ends of sentences, then, you must also learn marks with which to separate the various parts of long sentences—parts that could hardly be understood without these marks. All such marks make the reader stop for a second in order to understand what he has just read. The marks are used to replace the sound of the voice—to tell the eye what the ear gets from inflections, pauses, etc. when people talk to us.

To separate sentences from each other by marks, and to separate parts of sentences from other parts

by marks, is to *punctuate* those sentences. Such marks, therefore, are called *punctuation marks*.

117. Quotation marks. To repeat what some other person has said is to quote that person. The expression quoted is referred to as a quotation. If it repeats the exact words of the person, it is a direct quotation; if it repeats the thought not in the exact words, it is not a direct quotation. Examples:

Direct: He said, "I will do my best."

Not direct: He said that he would do his best.

118. The exact words of a speaker are enclosed in quotation marks (" ").

By reading the following passage, printed first without the marks and then with them, you will at once see the advantage of using them.

Mary, why, Mary! he cried, I was just talking about you. I was just telling Prescott that you must come. Why wasn't I allowed to come and get you? His face had fallen into graver, older lines. There was stern reproach in his eyes. Mary, answer me, he commanded. Mary!

"Mary, why, Mary!" he cried, "I was just talking about you. I was just telling Prescott that you must come. Why wasn't I allowed to come and get you?" His face had fallen into graver, older lines. There was stern reproach in his eyes. "Mary, answer me," he commanded. "Mary!"

Exercise

Place quotation marks correctly in the following sentences:

1. But why have you such a big mouth, Grandmother, asked Red Riding Hood.

2. Nelson said, England expects every man to do his duty.

3. The men were told that they would be treated justly.

4. The commander said, Men, while you are in this service, you will be treated justly.

5. The professor said that no student would be excused from examination.

A quotation interrupted by *said he* or *asked he* requires a set of quotation marks for each part of the quotation. For instance:

Right: "I shall not go," said he, "unless you go along."

Exercise

Place quotation marks correctly in the following sentences:

1. I do not know, said the librarian, whether I can remit this fine or not.

2. I thought, remarked Adelaide, that unused railway tickets were redeemable.

3. May I go, too, asked Eddie, eagerly; may I, Mother?

4. There is no reason, said the physician, gravely, why you should take such an attitude. I can not approve of it.

119. If the quotation is made up of several sentences, without interruption, only the quotation marks before the first sentence and after the last are needed.

120. Sometimes quoted conversation, besides being a quotation itself, includes a quotation. Such an included quotation is called a *quotation within a quotation*,

and is marked with single instead of double quotation marks. For instance:

“Remember, men,” said the general, “that we look to you for courage and bravery. Nelson said, ‘England expects every man to do his duty.’ That was long ago, but England expects the same response now that she obtained then.”

Exercise

Place quotation marks correctly in the following sentences:

1. My grandmother used to tell me, said Jameson, a great many useful things. One of her favorite sayings was, Many words darken speech.

2. Well, continued John, the fact that the house was dark was not the only terrifying factor in the situation. The wind sighed and howled, and sometimes a voice seemed to cry I’m coming! I’m coming!

3. The only thing I object to, said Charles, is that these people who are always crying out Do your duty! are always the last ones to do theirs.

4. No matter what you try to tell the man, objected Timothy, he interrupts you with that eternal, I say! Oh, I say!

121. Titles of books, magazines, and papers are enclosed in quotation marks when italics are not used, or when the titles are not underlined. Example:

Right: Kipling’s *Kim* is an interesting book.

Right: Kipling’s “Kim” is an interesting book.

In writing a quoted conversation, be careful to

begin each person's conversation on a new line indented as for the beginning of a new paragraph.

Wrong: "I can't do it," cried Mary. "Oh, yes, you can. Try harder!" replied John.

Right: "I can't do it," cried Mary, as she tugged vainly to get the engine started.

"Oh, yes, you can. Try harder!" replied John.

122. The hyphen. The word *man* cannot be broken apart. It has to be pronounced at one effort of the vocal organs. The word *republic*, however, falls into three distinct parts when you pronounce it slowly. *Re* can be said with one effort; *pub* with another, and *lic* with a third. Those letters of a word which can easily be pronounced together are called a *syllable*. There are two reasons why it is important for you to learn the syllables of a word. First, to know the syllables is a help in learning to spell and pronounce; second, it is important to know how to divide a word into its proper syllables in order to be able to write correctly words which have to be broken at the ends of lines on account of lack of room. Such a division should always be made at the end of a syllable.

When a word is divided at the end of a line the hyphen (-) is used at the end of a syllable, thus:

react-
ing

The hyphen indicates that part of the word is coming on the next line. Never break a word of one syllable, like *brought* or *which*.

Exercise

Break the following words at the end of some syllable as if they were written at the end of a line, and place the hyphen after the syllable:

knowing	carpet	nonsense
overslept	basket	capital

Words made up of two parts are compound words. Until such words have been used together so long that they have come to be considered a single word, the two parts are separated by a hyphen. *Freckle-faced* and *curly-headed* are examples. On the other hand, *workman* and *horseshoe* have become single words. If you are in doubt as to whether or not a word has dropped the hyphen, look the word up in the most recent dictionary at your command.

123. The comma. Perhaps the most important mark which indicates a pause inside the sentence is the *comma* (,).

The problem of the proper use of the comma is a simple one if you keep in mind one rule: *use your common sense*. Some sentences are short; some groups of words are so closely related, that it is not necessary or wise to separate them by commas. In the sentence, *John went home*, for example, you would not be using good sense to separate *John* from *went* by a comma.

Mary came when her mother called her.

Here, again, no pause is necessary between *came* and *when*.

The following specific uses of the comma will guide you in using it:

124. To mark the omission of words. Example:

To his enemies he was merciless; to his friends, gentle.
If we wrote out the second clause it would read,
To his friends he was gentle.

125. To separate words in apposition from the rest of the sentence when these words are out of the natural order. Example:

Mary, my sister, received the first prize in drawing.

In the sentence, *My sister Mary received the prize*, you would not need the comma. That is why the rule directs us to use it only when the words are out of their natural order.

126. To separate expressions of direct address from the rest of the sentence. Examples:

- (a) William, please answer the telephone.
- (b) I do not know, Anna, who took your paint-box.

127. To separate contrasted words or groups of words from the rest of the sentence. Example:

Acts, not words, count.

128. To separate parenthetical expressions from the rest of the sentence. Examples:

- (a) This man, as we all know, is a great leader of the movement for honest elections.
- (b) Yes, indeed, I know him well.

129. To separate from the rest of the sentence quotations not formally introduced. (See Section 141.)

Examples:

- (a) Someone shouted, "There's the president!"
- (b) "This," said the salesman, "is the best machine on the market."

130. Three or more words used in a series should be set off by commas.

The best usage requires a comma before the *and* connecting the last two words used in a series.

Examples:

- (a) Our flag is red, white, and blue.
- (b) He was a strong man, steady, conscientious, and resourceful.

131. When a dependent clause goes before the main clause, it is separated from the main clause by a comma. Examples:

- (a) If he goes, I shall not go.
- (b) If you do that again, I shall punish you.
- (c) When the train comes in, you hurry on board as fast as you can.

132. Introductory phrases and words should be separated from the main statement by a comma.

Examples:

- (a) After chopping the wood, Ralph laid it in piles.
- (b) Besides, it is poor policy.

These rules do not cover all of the possible uses of the comma. Your own judgment must be con-

sulted oftener about the use of this mark than about any other. Even if none of the rules given above applies, a comma should be used when it will make the meaning of a sentence clearer.

133. The comma blunder. The comma should not be used between the clauses of a compound sentence when they are not connected by a pure conjunction. The use of a comma between such clauses is known as the *comma blunder* or the *comma fault*.

Wrong: The engineer put on full steam, the train started with a jerk.

Right: The engineer put on full steam; the train started with a jerk.

Right: The engineer put on full steam. The train started with a jerk. (See section 137.)

Exercise

Place commas where you consider them necessary in the following sentences. Give your reasons for inserting the commas.

1. He produced an ivory tube through which one could look and by simply wishing see anything in the world or out of it.

2. Immediately without arguing the waiter made the change in our order.

3. When the Prince returned to the palace his two brothers were there awaiting him.

4. "Well may be they did" I said "but I think the Brownies in this case were the men who helped chop down the trees."

5. These are methods adopted by men whose business it is to grow trees.

6. If you will take this to Henry White my uncle I shall be very much obliged.

7. To those who tried he was gentle; to those who were lazy pitiless.

8. Who has not heard of Daniel Boone the great pioneer?

9. Fred please come here.

10. Once in a rough wild country
On the other side of the sea
There lived a dear little fairy
And her home was in a tree;
A dear little queer little fairy
And as rich as she could be.

11. It was queer enough to be sure to hear this rosy-cheeked little fellow talk about the government of his country and what he would do when he was a man.

12. Men women and children flocked to hear him.

13. We need a net two rackets two balls and some lime.

14. When Abraham Lincoln was twenty-one the whole family started for Illinois.

15. I had made the acquaintance of Mr. Raymond some time before and was walking up the drive to call on him when I first met Diamond.

16. Tom was at the works very early the next morning; early enough indeed to be alone with Wilkins the foreman of the laboratories.

17. Here a watering-pot lay on the grass; there a deserted spade; yonder a white apron hurriedly cast aside by an embarrassed maiden.

18. Mary stopped looked listened and held up a warning hand.

19. Not wishing to interrupt William stood aside and waited.

20. The sun even as we looked sank below the western horizon.

21. He would carry a fowling piece on his shoulder for hours together trudging through woods and swamps and up hill and down dale to shoot a few squirrels.

22. Maud cried "Help!"

23. As she was passing through the doorway she felt a drop of rain upon her face. "Oh mother" she cried "Put down the windows!"

24. Father promised us a tennis court this summer but it has rained so constantly that he has not been able to keep his promise.

134. The period. The period (.) is used to show finality or completeness.

135. The period (.) should be used after declarative and imperative sentences.

Proper use of the period requires a clear understanding of what makes a sentence.

Here are examples of complete and incomplete thoughts. Read them aloud over and over. Try to develop the ability to tell instantly whether or not a group of words expresses a thought completely.

Incomplete: On Sunday

On Sunday does not express a thought completely. These words should not stand alone as if they were a sentence.

Complete: I went walking on Sunday.

Incomplete: If you had not

If you had not does not express a thought com-

pletely. These words should not stand alone as if they were a sentence.

Complete: I would not have come if you had not called.

Exercise

Read each of the following groups of words; tell whether each is a sentence or not, and place periods where they are needed.

1. The only objection I have to football is that the game is too rough

2. Moreover there was not a single boy there who although over sixteen years of age

3. One needs steady nerves to kick a goal when the score is a tie

4. The Liberty Bell which is a relic of Revolutionary days and which now rests in Independence Hall, Philadelphia

5. Mrs. Payton was so astounded when her mother suddenly came into the room

6. As soon as I could, I took the book up to my room

7. Abraham Lincoln was called a rail-splitter. Because he split rails for a living. Once in his boyhood

8. I found this paper. On the cellar shelf

9. I have received reliable information that

10. After half an hour Gallagher slipped down to the bottom of the cab and dragged out a lap-robe

11. "I am Mr. Dwyer, of the *Press*," said the sporting editor briskly

12. But his fear was overcome when out from his hiding place with a yell and a bound

13. Gallagher leaped up on the box, pulling out the whip as he did so, and with a quick sweep lashed the horse across the back

14. They found evidence of a crime. In the safe

Go over this exercise again, making complete all the incomplete groups of words.

Keeping in mind what you have learned about the period, study the following sentence:

I did not hear a word the minister said, I was dreaming.

You learned in section 133 that you cannot use a comma between the parts of a compound sentence unless they are connected by a pure conjunction. The meaning you wish to give in such cases will determine your punctuation. As you will learn when you study the semicolon, you can indicate relationship of thought in certain cases by placing a semicolon between the independent clauses. You will always be safe, however, if you make separate sentences using the period, thus:

I did not hear a word the minister said. I was dreaming.

Another error may trouble you. For example:

Where is he, I cannot find him.

Here, instead of finding the comma used instead of the period, you find it used to replace the question mark. This also has the effect of putting unrelated thoughts into one sentence.

Right: Where is he? I cannot find him.

136. The period is always used after an abbreviation. Examples:

Jr., Dr., R. S. V. P., etc., f. o. b.

The period is always used after an initial. Example:

Mr. J. M. Smith.

137. The semicolon. The semicolon (;) is used to separate the clauses of a compound sentence when these clauses are not closely connected in thought, or when the second clause is introduced by a conjunctive adverb. Examples:

He waited in breathless silence; the stealthy footsteps came nearer and nearer.

The boy flushed and stammered; then he came around to Winifred's seat, bringing the book.

A writer who desires to secure the effect of contrast may use the semicolon between the clauses of a compound sentence when these clauses are connected by a pure conjunction. Example:

There is often a threatening note in the voice of bells; but these, as they sounded abroad, were quiet and tunable, and seemed to fall in with the spirit of rustic places.

Exercise

Place semicolons properly in the following sentences:

1. I was not invited so I did not go.
2. It was too cold to sleep out of doors therefore we went into the tent.
3. The children have been dismissed from school hence the noise in the street has increased.
4. He complained for an hour about going however, he went.

5. Motorists constantly violated the speed laws still the residents made no complaint.

6. There was not room for a single additional passenger in the car nevertheless three men squeezed in.

7. Doctor Conwell made a few introductory remarks then Mr. Taft began his speech.

8. The checked suit is too big besides I do not like it.

9. Poor Rip was reduced almost to despair his only alternative to escape was to take gun in hand and stroll into the woods.

10. The day was at an end shadow and silence possessed the valley.

11. I will not lie to gain my ends neither will I be dishonest.

You will need to distinguish between a clause introduced by a conjunctive adverb and a clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction. The clause introduced by the conjunctive adverb is independent and could be written in a separate sentence. The clause introduced by the subordinating conjunction is dependent and could not be written as a separate sentence. This distinction is important because clauses introduced by a conjunctive adverb may be separated from the preceding clauses by a semicolon. Clauses introduced by a subordinating conjunction may not be separated from the main clause by a semicolon; they must be separated, as you know, by a comma.

Wrong: He knew me at once; when I crossed the street.

Right: He knew me at once, when I crossed the street.

Exercise

Correct the following sentences:

1. No one ever saw her skate; although she talked constantly of her skating.

2. I shall go now; if I have your permission.

3. He put away his camping outfit in the tent; while Bert unpacked his kitchen kit.

4. It is useless for you to come here; unless you are willing to work.

5. I have known him from the days of my extreme youth; because he made my father's boots.

6. I did not attend that school in the fall; although I had been promoted.

7. I was thinking this, and looking at my wife's troubled face; when our new uncle tapped me on the arm.

8. She arrived one morning shortly after breakfast; as we were preparing to go for a drive.

9. Uncle David looked at her without a sign of recognition, and went on out into the hall; where he got his hat and gloves.

10. Until the sound of the footsteps died away, Larry stood absolutely rigid; while my wife and I gazed at him spellbound.

You have seen that the semicolon should not be used between a main clause and a subordinate clause that follows the main clause. You should avoid the opposite error of using a comma between two independent clauses when one of them is introduced by a conjunctive adverb. This is another form of the comma blunder. Examples:

Wrong: I was sitting in a draught, hence I caught cold.

Right: I was sitting in a draught; hence I caught cold.

Wrong: The man showed no signs of rebelling, nevertheless the officer handcuffed him.

Right: The man showed no signs of rebelling; nevertheless, the officer handcuffed him.

Exercise

Correct the following sentences:

1. She looked up and returned his salutation with dignity, then she went on with her work.

2. Mary was going abroad, so each of us sent her a steamer letter.

3. He must have passed a civil service examination, otherwise how could he have secured the position?

4. No one took any care of it, therefore the whole place went to rack and ruin.

5. Both rear tires were punctured, hence we were delayed on the road.

6. Booth had a splendid reputation, nevertheless the editor refused to hire him.

7. The mob made for the jail doors, then pandemonium reigned.

8. We promised him our protection, indeed we promised him safety.

9. We made the best speed we could, still we were miles from home.

10. Burson went, yet he went so unwillingly that we had to smile.

138. The semicolon is used before *namely*, *e. g.*, *viz.*, and *i. e.*, when these expressions introduce

examples of statements made in the foregoing part of the sentence. These words or abbreviations are all equivalent to *that is*. Example:

In order to pursue this investigation, we must know two things; namely, the object of the crime, and the person most benefited by its commission.

Never use this kind of enumeration except in reference to a business matter, or in a matter-of-fact discussion. It would be ridiculous to write this:

Wrong: I watched all the signs of her emotion; namely her tears, her fast-coming breath, her unrestrained sobs.

Right: I watched all the signs of her emotion—her tears, her fast-coming breath, her unrestrained sobs.

139. The semicolon is used to separate phrases or clauses which are used alike in the sentence, when these phrases or clauses have commas within them.

It is evident that a comma used to separate clauses within which there were already commas, would confuse the reader rather than help him. Examples:

- (a) It was September; the weather had fallen sharp; a flighty piping wind, laden with showers, beat about the township; and the dead leaves ran riot in the streets.
- (b) If you find your disinclination to my plan too great, I shall take means to force you; to compel you; to *make* you less obstinate; to be extreme with you; in short, my dear fellow, to command you.

140. The colon. The colon (:) indicates that something is to follow.

141. The colon is used before a quotation formally introduced. Example:

The lawyer spoke as follows: "I can not plead that my client needed the money, but I can state, and I can prove, that yours did."

A quotation preceded by *thus* or *as follows* and the colon, is said to be formally introduced.

142. The colon is used after a single word to be followed by an illustration, as after the word *Example*, used in this text.

143. The colon is used after the salutation in a business letter. Example:

Mr. John H. Thompson,
53 Wall Street,
New York City.

Dear Sir:

144. The colon is used before an enumerating list. Example:

Send for the following articles: brushes, floor wax, filler, oil, and polishers.

Exercise

Supply colons where they are needed in the following sentences:

1. Please send the following pupils to me immediately after school Fred Smith, Elsie Deering, Jane Nutley, Mary Rowe, and William Yates.

2. The merchant ordered this list leather purses, hand-bags, change pocket-books, chatelaine bags, and bill-folders.

3. Congress has lately passed the following good laws the Good Roads' Measure, the Loan Bill, the Naval Appropriation Bill, and others.

4. The following magazines have been added to the list in the school library The Independent, Harper's, Collier's, and The Outlook.

5. Short stories by the following authors were recommended to the class G. Henry, Richard Harding Davis, Robert Louis Stevenson, Mary Shipman Andrews, and H. C. Bunner.

145. Marks of parenthesis. Marks of parenthesis () are used to enclose a part of the sentence which, although adding a thought to the sentence, is not connected in structure with the rest of the sentence. Example:

As I found my way through the rooms (I had been there before) I had time to reflect on what I should say.

The practice of enclosing in marks of parenthesis words which you wish to strike out of the sentence is wrong. If you cannot erase such words, draw a straight line through them.

146. Brackets. Brackets [] are used to enclose explanatory material introduced into the quotation by the writer quoting. Example:

The speaker said, "They [the slaves] are powerless to help themselves. We must help them."

147. The apostrophe. The apostrophe (') is used to mark the possessive case of nouns. Examples:

- Father's business collapsed at the outbreak of war.
- Men's hats and caps are sold here.

148. The apostrophe is used to indicate the plural of letters, figures, and other symbols. Examples:

- He had three B's on his report.
- Make your r's more plainly.
- Cross out the 2's and 3's instead.

149. The apostrophe is used to mark the omission of letters in contractions. Examples:

- He's, won't, o'clock.

150. Capital letters. Use a capital letter to begin the first word of every sentence.

151. Use a capital letter to begin every proper noun or adjective. Examples:

- Lincoln, the American army, the British navy.

152. Use a capital letter to begin the first word of every direct quotation. Example:

- The girl raised her head quickly and said, "Never; I shall never do it."

153. Use a capital letter to begin every word in the title of a book or theme except articles, prepositions, and conjunctions. Example:

- This quotation is taken from *A Window in Vladivostok*.

154. Use a capital letter to begin each noun in the salutation of a letter. Example:

My dear Elizabeth.

155. Use a capital letter to begin the first word of every line of poetry. Example:

Cromwell, I did not think to shed a tear
In all my miseries; but thou hast forced me,
Out of thy honest truth, to play the woman.

156. Use a capital letter to write the pronoun I and the interjection O.

157. Use a capital letter for *father*, *mother*, *uncle*, etc. when these words stand instead of personal names. Do not use a capital when the possessive pronoun precedes; as, *My father is a bookkeeper*.

XIV. SPEAKING AND WRITING ENGLISH

158. **The Dictionary.** The dictionary is a book which contains facts about words as they are used by the best writers and speakers. As the language grew, words acquired new meanings, dropped old ones, or went out of fashion. In time so many facts about words accumulated, that no one person could remember them. Among a large and scattered people, too, uncertainties concerning spelling and proper usage arose. A book which contained the facts about all our words became a necessity.

Dictionaries differ in the method of presenting material, but the following definition, from an unabridged dictionary, shows how to find out the essential facts about a word:

in-tact' (in-tăkt'), *a.* [L. *intactus*; *in-* not + *tactus*, p. p. of *tangere* to touch. See *IN-* not; *TACT*, *TANGENT*.] Untouched, esp. by anything that harms, defiles, or the like; uninjured; undefiled; left complete or entire. **Syn.**—See *WHOLE*.

Parentheses in which are enclosed the pronunciation of the word usually follow the word itself. At the bottom of each page in the dictionary is a key to the symbols found in the parentheses.

The italicized letter, *a.*, stands for *adjective*, the part of speech of the word.

Placed somewhere in the definition is a set of brackets which contain information concerning the sources of the word. In this case you see that the Latin meaning of the word is *not touched*, and that the English meaning is identical—*untouched, uninjured*.

Below the various meanings of the word is the abbreviation **Syn.**, standing for synonyms, and indicating that words of similar kindred meaning are to be found under this heading. In this case you are directed to see *whole*, where you will find a list of the synonyms, and a discussion of the meaning of each.

penman (-măn), *n.*; *pl.* -MEN (mĕn). 1. One who uses the pen; a writer. Specif.: **a** One who writes or copies papers, documents, or the like for another; a clerk; scribe. **b** One who is expert in penmanship; one who writes well.

2. An author; a composer.

Note that, after the abbreviation for noun, the plural form of this word is given, *pl. men*. When the plural of a word is made in the usual way, by adding *s* or *es* to the singular, the dictionary does not give the plural form; but if there is any irregularity about a plural form, the dictionary gives the plural.

After the plural form and its pronunciation is the number 1 in black-faced type. Below, the number 2 occurs in black-faced type. These numbers indicate that the word *penman* has two different meanings or senses. The different meanings are given in numerical order for convenience only. The fact that one meaning precedes another in this numerical list does not show that one meaning is preferred to another. You can

generally tell which meaning applies to the word that you are looking up, by the way the word is used in the sentence. Do not take the first meaning you see and make a ludicrous mistake.

Note that in meaning 1 the abbreviation *Specif.* occurs. A list of the meanings of abbreviations is found on a page in the front of the dictionary. Meaning 1 is subdivided into two parts: **a** and **b**. These divisions indicate a difference in meaning.

The dictionary tells the rank or standing of words. Words in use by the best writers and speakers of our time are said to be in good use. The dictionary distinguishes between words that are in good use and those which are not by plainly marking those that are not. Examples of this marking are:

Obs., standing for obsolete, meaning *out-of-date*.

R., standing for rare, meaning *seldom used*.

U. S., standing for United States, meaning *used only in the United States*.

Colloq., standing for colloquial, meaning *used in informal conversation only*.

Slang, meaning *an expression not in accepted usage*.

All symbols and abbreviations are explained in the dictionary.

159. Idiom. You can say *He was a friend of the clerk's*, and you can say *He was a friend of the clerk*. You can say *He was a friend of mine*, but you cannot say *He was a friend of me*.

Why can you not say *He was a friend of me*? The reason is very simple. The language, in its

growth, has sanctioned *He was a friend of mine*, and has not sanctioned *He was a friend of me*, although, of the two constructions, *He was a friend of me* is closer to grammatical usage. There are hosts of expressions in the language like *He was a friend of mine*. They are in good standing, but they can not be cut into grammatical bits and classified. These expressions are called *idioms*.

An *idiom* is a mode of expression peculiar to the language in which it is found.

Idioms are expressions which carry force as wholes. It is unwise to tear them to pieces in the attempt to give each piece a grammatical name. Moreover, if you try to bring all idioms under the ordinary rules of grammar, you will spend much time and effort in making distinctions that will be of no assistance to you in writing or speaking.

The following examples illustrate the kind of expressions better treated as wholes:

- At all:* He will give me *nothing at all* in return for my work.
- Boot:* We traded horses. I gave Harry five dollars to *boot*.
- Cheek:* There he was, *cheek by jowl* with the worst boys in town.
- Cut:* She *cuts a poor figure*.
- Good:* If you *make good*, I shall be proud of you.
- In:* He was up *in arms* against the whole situation.
- Long:* He studies *all day long*.
- Look:* *Look out!* There's the train!

- Set:* That story *set* them all *by the ears*.
Worse: What you say makes the matter *so much the worse*.
Worth: Give me *a quarter's worth* of candy.

Besides the idiomatic expressions just illustrated, there are many idiomatic uses of prepositions. Examples of wrong and right uses are here given.

We do not say:

We do say:

- | | |
|----------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|
| The man worked <i>on</i> or <i>by</i> a machine all day. | The man worked <i>at</i> a machine all day. |
| I <i>placed</i> it <i>into</i> the bag. | I <i>put</i> it <i>into</i> the bag. |
| I sat <i>in back of</i> you. | I sat <i>behind</i> you. |
| I can not help <i>but</i> smile at her. | I can not help <i>smiling</i> at her. |
| His point of view is different <i>than</i> mine. | His point of view is different <i>from</i> mine. |
| John borrowed my pencil <i>off</i> me. | John borrowed my pencil. |
| I bought this fruit <i>off</i> the Italian peddler. | I bought this fruit <i>from</i> the Italian peddler. |
| May I have the loan of your pencil? | May I borrow your pencil? |
| The prisoner was freed <i>of</i> his obligations. | The prisoner was freed <i>from</i> his obligations. |
| Her hair was kept in place <i>with</i> a net. | Her hair was kept in place <i>by</i> a net. |
| There were fresh curtains <i>to</i> the windows. | There were fresh curtains <i>at</i> the windows. |
| Conferences end <i>around</i> half-past three. | Conferences end <i>about</i> half-past three. |
| Were you <i>to</i> school yesterday? | Were you <i>at</i> school yesterday? |
| Take that cap <i>off of</i> your head. | Take that cap <i>off</i> ; or, take that cap off your head. |

We do not say:

She crawled *in under* the table.What is *inside of* this drawer?I have come *in regards* to a
matter of business.I shall not go *without* you do.He talks *like* he *was* angry.I was *to* the office to inquire.What is the matter *of* it?

We do say:

She crawled *under* the table.What is *inside* this drawer?I have come *in regard* to a
matter of business.I shall not go *unless* you do.He talks *as if* he *were* angry.I was *at* the office to inquire.What is the matter *with* it?

XV. POPULAR ERRORS

Many errors frequently occurring in the oral and written work of pupils are here listed, and exercises for correcting such errors are given. This chapter offers for correction some errors which are rhetorical rather than grammatical in their nature. The fact that crudities of expression, as well as actual grammatical errors, contribute their share toward making the speech of modern young people unattractive, seems to justify their inclusion.

160. Subject not in the nominative case.

Wrong: Him and her went.

Right: He and she went.

Exercise

Correct the following sentences:

1. Them are my books.
2. Me and her were both early.
3. John was shorter than him.
4. Kate and her applied for the position.
5. He was a man whom, it is said, never did wrong.

161. Predicate nominative not in the nominative case.

Wrong: Yes, that was him.

Right: Yes, that was he.

This list of errors is given in the report on "A Course of Study in Grammar," by Dean W. W. Charters, issued by the University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri. The examples, exercises, and discussion of the errors are our own.

Exercise

Correct the following sentences:

1. I knew it was her when I heard her step.
2. If it were me, I would resign.
3. Whom was it they wanted?
4. That poor student was me.
5. I felt so sorry when I learned that it was him who had been killed.

162. Nominative of pronoun wrongly used for objective.

Wrong: The decision lay with she and I.

Right: The decision lay with her and me.

Wrong: The man who you used to know has gone away.

Right: The man whom you used to know has gone away.

Exercise

Correct the errors in the following sentences:

1. Between you and I there must be a secret.
2. Grandfather told she and I a wonderful story.
3. The girl who you called is absent to-day.
4. I never knew a citizen who such honor was shown to.
5. The watermelon was divided up among we girls.

163. Wrong form of pronoun.

Wrong: He injured hisself.

Right: He injured himself.

Exercise

Correct the errors in the following sentences:

1. If they could put theirselves in our position, they would know.
2. James was angry with hissself when he found his mistake.
3. We had put ourselves at a disadvantage.
4. He is not afraid of the chief hissself.

164. First personal pronoun standing first in a series.

Wrong: I and you are the ones to go.

Right: You and I are the ones to go.

Correct the errors in the following sentences:

1. I and George were the first ones there.
2. I and several friends spent a week together.
3. Mary and I and her sister made up the party.
4. I and you could be spared.

165. Use of the personal pronoun instead of the required adjective.

Wrong: Them trunks have gone.

Right: Those trunks have gone.

Exercise

Correct the errors in the following sentences:

1. Are them our checks?
2. Them elevators are hydraulic.
3. Them soldiers are jolly, aren't they?
4. I never was busy yet that them boys didn't come.

166. Failure of the adjective to agree with its noun in number.

Wrong: She had one of these kind of pictures.

Right: She had one of this kind of picture.

Exercise

Correct the errors in the following sentences:

1. It was one of those type of mail chutes.
2. Those sort of stories aren't worth reading.
3. I like those kind of people.

167. Failure of the verb to agree with its subject in number and person.

Wrong: It don't matter.

Right: It doesn't matter.

Exercise

Correct the errors in the following sentences:

1. Is your feet wet?
2. Isn't there any eggs?
3. How's all your people?
4. There isn't bananas enough to go around.
5. Don't he know you?
6. Reasons ain't always convincing.
7. I am your own cousin, ain't I?
8. These is the best I have.
9. Rules is a nuisance.

168. Confusion of past and present tenses.

Wrong: You knew what I ask you.

Right: You knew what I asked you.

Exercise

Correct the errors in the following sentences:

1. He give me that yesterday.
2. It use to be that food was cheap.
3. I questioned him and he answers me.
4. The dog come around the corner just as I reached the steps.
5. The funny part of it was, he leaves the baby in the station.
6. I goes over and I says to him, I says, "What do you want?"
7. I asked a guard how to get there, and he says, "Walk."
8. I eat a good dinner to-day.

169. Confusion of past tense and past participle.

This is one of the most frequent errors. One of the surest ways to avoid it is to know perfectly the principal parts of irregular verbs, and to remember that the past tense of such verbs is used independently, never with *have*, and that the past participle of such verbs is never used independently, but always with *have*. For example, many people say, *I seen it* and *I have saw it*. The principal parts of the verb *see* are:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
see	saw	seen

With the principal parts in mind, you realize that *saw* is the form that can stand alone, and that *seen* is the part that must have the help of *have*. The correct statements are: *I saw* and *I have seen*. A table of the

principal parts of irregular verbs can be found on pages 130-135.

Exercise

Correct the errors in the following sentences:

1. I haven't did a thing all day.
2. I would have went if you would.
3. This is the prettiest scarf I've ever saw.
4. You might have knew that it would rain.
5. If I had took you at your word I would have regretted it.
6. I seen a fountain pen that has been wrote with for ten years.
7. He hadn't ate such a meal in years.
8. She has sang for royalty.
9. The wind has blew our chimney over.
10. The bell has rang; you'd better hurry.
11. I was took off my feet with surprise.
12. That man has drank all the water.
13. Has that child fell again?
14. I done all I could for him.

170. Wrong tense forms.

This error also can be avoided if you know the principal parts and the way to form the tenses.

Wrong: I knowed him well.

Right: I knew him well.

Exercise

Correct the errors in the following sentences:

1. Johnson throwed a good ball.
2. The wind blowed twenty miles an hour.

3. The pipes froze and busted.
4. He clumb up the lattice and drug the vine off.
5. He hasn't aten meat in a year.
6. I disremember what he said.

171. Wrong verb.

You sometimes make errors because you do not know the principal parts of verbs. Another source of error lies in not knowing the meanings of verbs. Always be sure not only of the principal parts but of the meanings of verbs. The verbs most frequently confused as to the meaning are here explained.

Lie and lay.

The principal parts of the verb, including the present participle, are here given:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
<i>Tense</i>	<i>Tense</i>	<i>Participle</i>	<i>Participle</i>
lie	lay	lying	lain
lay	laid	laying	laid

Lie means to *recline*; that is, to be in a position of rest. *Lay* means to *put* or *place* something.

First of all, consider the meanings of the two verbs. Realize what being in a position of rest means. An animal body can get into a position of rest. You can lie down; a dog can lie down. A thing can not lie down, but you may speak of it as if it could. A book can not actually lie down, but of a book in a position of rest on a table you may say, *The book lies on the table*. The difference between being in a position of rest and putting something somewhere ought

to be very plain. I put (lay) the book on the table. After I have put (laid) the book on the table, the book *lies* or *is lying* there. Now learn the principal parts of the verbs with the meaning of each verb in mind. There is only one difficulty. The past tense of the verb meaning to be in a position of rest is just like the present tense of the verb meaning to put something. If you know your principal parts and what you want to say, this resemblance will not confuse you. Here are examples of the use of the verbs:

Mother lies down every afternoon.	Mother lays the book on the table.
Mother lay down yesterday afternoon.	Mother laid the book on the table.
Mother will lie down to-morrow afternoon.	Mother will lay the book on the table.
Mother has always lain down in the afternoon.	Mother has laid the book on the table.
Mother had just lain down to rest.	Mother had laid the book on the table.

Sit and set.

<i>Present Tense</i>	<i>Past Tense</i>	<i>Present Participle</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
sit	sat	sitting	sat
set	set	setting	set

Sit means to rest in what is familiar to you as "a sitting position." You sit down; a dog sits down. A thing can not actually sit, but you may speak of it as if it could. The house *sits* far back from the road. The sewing table *sits* in the corner of the room.

To *set* is to put something somewhere. You *set* the table; you *set* the buttons an inch from the edge; you *set* the hen, but the hen *sits* on the eggs. She is a *sitting* hen. If you know the principal parts of the two verbs and what you want to say, you will not confuse them. Here are examples of their use:

The teacher sits at her desk.	I always set the flower-pot on the sill.
The teacher sat at her desk.	I set the flower-pot on the sill.
The teacher will sit at her desk.	I shall set the flower-pot on the sill.
The teacher has not sat at her desk.	I have set the flower-pot on the sill.
The teacher had sat at her desk.	I had set the flower-pot on the sill.

Rise and raise.

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
<i>Tense</i>	<i>Tense</i>	<i>Participle</i>	<i>Participle</i>
rise	rose	rising	risen
raise	raised	raising	raised

Rise means to ascend, or to move from a lower position to a higher. *Raise* means to *make* move from a lower position to a higher. There is a difference between moving and making move. A sick person may rise from a chair with the assistance of a nurse. The sick person *rises*; the nurse *raises* the sick person.

Wages *rise*, but an employer has to *raise* them.

The sun *rises*; a person getting up in the morning

is rising; he *raises* the shades to let in the sunlight. He lowers the windows which he *had raised* the night before. Bread dough *rises*; it itself moves to a higher position; after it has reached the higher position, it has *risen*. The only way you could *raise* dough is to pick it up. A man describing what he did when he was frightened by a noise in the night said, "I raised up in bed to listen." He meant, "I rose up in bed to listen," or "I raised myself up in bed to listen." Examples of the use of these verbs follow:

I rise early.

I raise the windows at night.

I rose early.

I raised the windows at night.

I shall rise early.

I shall raise the windows at night.

I have risen early.

I have raised the windows at night.

I had risen early.

I had raised the windows at night.

May and *can*.

May implies permission; *can* implies power.

A child once asked his teacher, "Can I shut the door?"

"I don't know," replied the teacher. "Have you the strength to do it?"

The child had merely desired permission to close the door; he asked the teacher whether or not he had the power to close it. Examples of the use of these verbs follow:

You may read if you wish.

Can you read?

You may draw the design.

Can you draw a design?

4. She is the oldest of the two sisters.
5. He is the younger of a family of five.

173. Confusion of adjective and adverb, or adjective and pronoun.

Wrong: Do you like candy? I sure do.

Right: Do you like candy? I surely do.

Wrong: That play went pretty good.

Right: That play went pretty well.

Wrong: Are them trunks ours?

Right: Are those trunks ours?

Write the following sentences correctly:

1. Bring them calendars here.
2. He was hurt bad, but he will recover.
3. I knew them people years ago.
4. I sure was glad when the whistle blew.
5. The game went good, but I sure was worried at first.

174. Double negative.

Wrong: There ain't no use talking to some people.

Right: There isn't any use talking to some people.

Wrong: I never did that, neither.

Right: I never did that.

Wrong: One man didn't say nothing hardly.

Right: One man said hardly anything.

Write the following sentences correctly:

1. He isn't never going to write to her again.
2. There ain't no more paper.
3. I haven't had no chance.

4. You don't care nothing about marks.
5. He doesn't know no more about that than I do.

175. Confusion of preposition and conjunction.

Wrong: He never did like he was told.

Right: He never did as he was told.

Wrong: He shivers like he was cold.

Right: He shivers as if he were cold.

Write the following sentences correctly:

1. He shouted like he was scared.
2. He ran like he was going for a doctor.
3. Don't do like I do; do like I say.

176. Unnecessary words.

Wrong: The girls they have a club.

Right: The girls have a club.

Wrong: Where do you live at?

Right: Where do you live?

Wrong: This here ink, it's watery.

Right: This ink is watery.

Write the following sentences correctly:

1. My uncle he stepped upon the scales.
2. That there notebook is mine.
3. Where did I leave my pen at?
4. This here policeman he says to me, "You must go home."
5. My brother he joined the army.

177. Wrong part of speech because of similarity of sound.

Wrong: There were to men.

Right: There were two men.

Wrong: The guests road, but we walked.

Right: The guests rode, but we walked.

Write the following sentences correctly:

1. I had too much trouble with my English.
2. I know too men who conduct orchestras.
3. There are to or three exits.
4. You can by anything you want their.
5. We had know money with us.

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